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The Journal

Published works in the 2003 Student Showcase Journal were the award winning presentations of papers, projects, and performances at the nineteenth annual Student Showcase Conference held at the University of Alaska Anchorage on April 3, 10, and 11. Papers published in the Journal were edited in accordance with the publication manuals of the American Psychological Association, fifth edition; the MLA Handbook, fourth edition; and the Chicago Manual of Style, fourteenth edition. The contents of this Journal are also available on the Student Showcase 2003 CD.

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The Student Showcase Program

The UAA Student Showcase Program is designed to highlight the extraordinary work of students throughout the University of Alaska Anchorage system. It is with great pride that we present the Student Showcase Journal for 2003.

The Student Showcase Academic Conference and Journal have been in existence for nineteen years. The conference is a unique program in the State of Alaska with only students presenting original papers, musical performances, and projects. The Student Showcase Committee examines policies and procedures, reviews promotional materials, and selects award recipients.

Each year the Student Showcase creates an opportunity for dialogue among university and community members. Students submit their best work for evaluation by objective faculty members from their discipline; selected works are presented at the conference; and distinguished community members are invited to evaluate, critique, and comment on students' works. The very best papers, performances, and projects are published in the Student Showcase Journal and CD.

New this year was a three-part conference, which featured an evening music gala. Students from Anchorage,

Kodiak, Wasilla, Eagle River, and Palmer participated in the academic conference held on April 3, 10, and 11, 2003. From the seventy entries submitted, forty-one were presented at the conference, ten were chosen as award recipients, and eight received honorable mentions. The conference participants (students, staff, faculty, and conference commentators) were invited to attend an awards luncheon where the winners were announced.

The UAA Student Showcase continues to be a success year after year and it is due to the continued support of faculty members, community members, and of course, UAA students! We hope that this journal reflects the dedication and commitment of all of those involved.

"Participation in the Student Showcase Conference helped validate what I once thought was just a personal interest. The confidence that came from presenting my work in a conference setting gave me a professional language and a solid platform of study, both of which I pull from each time I present to children and educators as a visiting artist in schools and conferences."

Amy Meissner
Student Showcase winner
2002 and 2003

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Award Winning Presenters

2003 Student Showcase Winners

Front Row: (L-R): Molly Andrews, Yukiko Hayano, Patricia Tibor. Second Row: Ariane Clark, Jessica Wedin, Jessica Ramsey Golden, Meggie Aube. Back Row: Andrew Feild, Stephen Smith, Amy Meissner, Sandra Morris, Andrew Gardner, Allana Salisbury. Not picutred: Tracy Hoffman, Sarah Parsons, and Kiel Schweizer.

The Rhythm Song by Paul Smadbeck

Meggie Aube

Music 161 – Private Lessons/Percussion
Mr. John Damberg, Instructor

Rhythm Song is among the comparatively small repertoire that is written specifically for the marimba. The marimba has only been in the United States since the early 1900's and has only been considered a classical performing instrument for fifty years. Since the marimba has such a short history, it can be difficult at times to find quality literature that is not transcribed from other instruments and that is not over-played by other marimbists. I chose this piece because of the rhythmical drive throughout. The rhythmic nature of the piece fulfills my desire as a percussionist.

Paul Smadbeck explains that when writing the piece he "drew from elements of minimalism, American jazz/fusion, and African music." He goes on to say that the player should "imagine that the selected notes of the marimba are pitched drums… the melodic and harmonic elements are subservient to the rhythms." When he wrote the piece, he made the melody and harmony simple so the rhythms in the piece could be fully explored.

The first section of the piece is played without any fluctuations in tempo and is meant to have a "groove." The second section, which is in 6/8, is based on African drum rhythms.

The Awakening Literary Essay

Ariane Clark

English 121 – Introduction to Literature
Mr. Mike Sirofchuck, Instructor

Kate Chopin uses five different birds to symbolize and reflect the stages of Edna's evolution. In the beginning a parrot and a mocking-bird reflect Edna's 'copy-cat' behaviors of her society, and then an owl emphasizes the sudden changes she is going to encounter as she comes to understand her oddness in society's eye. Later, a pigeon reflects her freedom from the rules and at the same time it reflects her need to hang on to them for appearances. Finally, a sea bird with a broken wing in the end of the book resembles Edna's inability to be the woman society expected her to be.

The Awakening was written in 1899 in a time when discussion of "female marital infidelity" was unacceptable and shocking. Chopin's bold novel turned her readers' heads when she took them away from romantic fiction and plunged into the mind of an unhappily married woman. The content and meaning of her novel shocked past readers but has come to be a truly exceptional novel in today's society.

Chopin has carefully chosen what birds to include in her novel and their placement, in order to reflect Edna. In the beginning, she creates the mood of Edna's personality when she introduces the parrot and mocking-bird. Together they set up

Edna's character traits at that point in the story. An exotic bird, the parrot, reflects Edna's individualism, and both birds represent the mocking behaviors that she exhibits to fit in with the people around her. An owl is placed in a crucial moment as Edna realizes things are not going as well as they should. Because the owl is symbolic of transformation and change, and believed to bring moments of enlightenment and prophecy, it is foreshadowing what is yet to come. Later, after Edna has grown tired of her house and all it represents, she moves into what she calls the 'pigeon house', introducing the next bird. The fact that Chopin makes a point of having the bird appear as a 'pigeon house' leads the reader to assume she is referring to a homing pigeon, which will return to the place it calls 'home' for comfort and reassurance, just as Edna does. Finally, the fifth bird is a sea bird with a broken wing. It is a mirror image of Edna's place in society at the end of the novel. It reflects how Edna could not be who the people expected her to be.

"A green and yellow parrot…in a cage outside the door kept repeating over and over…" (p. 1). Chopin introduces the parrot so early in the story that the reader does not think anything of it, but as they read on they come to understand that everything said about it is directly associated to Edna. Edna's copying behaviors of the society she married into are reflected in the parrot's repetition of words spoken to it. Neither one involves independent thinking. Also included in the phrase is the unmistakable fact that the bird is in a cage just as Edna is trapped within society's cage. Each having been left outside the door of the house, or the 'walls' of society, represents how Edna is so close to being within and yet is so different: she will never be able to be accepted. When Chopin writes, "a green and yellow parrot…", she also sets up Edna's odd beauty and difference from her companions, for her uniqueness and inability to conform are reflected in that moment. The parrot spoke, "…a

language which nobody understood, unless it was the mocking-bird that hung on the other side of the door, whistling his fluty notes…with maddening persistence," (p. 1). Just as the parrot speaks a language that no one understands, so does Edna. Her heart and mind speak aloud with words that Edna does not understand. She is speaking to the person she will become, just as the parrot is speaking to the mocking bird. Together, the birds mirror Edna now and the person she becomes later in the story.

An owl plays a much smaller but highly significant role in symbolizing Edna's evolution. It is mentioned that Edna was alone except for the "…hooting of an old owl in the top of a water-oak." (p. 6). Edna overlooks the soft hooting of the owl, though she is conscience that it is there. As she hears the soft hooting of the owl, she sees it only as night-time noise, not realizing the owl is speaking to her about all the wisdom she has yet to acquire about herself and who she will become. Because owls symbolize enlightenment, its appearance in the story is foreshadowing what is yet to come.

Later in the novel, Edna has found a small place and named it the "pigeon house" (p. 91) presenting the fourth bird. Like a pigeon, Edna is as free as she ever could be, but because Chopin tied the bird to a house, she is like a homing pigeon and returns to her place in society simply for appearances sake. When the house is described as being "…behind a locked gate, and [with] a shallow parterre that had been somewhat neglected," it is symbolic to Edna in every way, for she too, had been locked behind a barrier that was not opened until she 'arrived'.

The last bird used by Chopin was a sea bird with a broken wing. This bird was used as a tie-up to a foreshadowing statement in the beginning of the book when Chopin writes of the women in society and how they "…were women who idolized their children, worshiped their husbands, and esteemed it a holy privilege to efface themselves as individuals and grow

wings…" (p. 8). Chopin goes on to say how Edna is not a motherly woman and never could be, "…though she had married a Creole, she was not thoroughly at home in the society of Creoles…." A broken wing symbolizes Edna's inability to grow the wings in the first place. When the sea bird falls to its death as it flies over the ocean, it symbolizes Edna's downfall at the attempt she made to grow the wings needed to be the woman society expected her to be.

Community Action in Nursing Advocacy: Recruiting, Retention, and Diversity

Andrew P. Feild
Sandra Morris
Yukiko Hayano
Tracy Hoffmann Brauchle
Molly Andrews
Alanna Salisbury
Jessica Wedin

Nursing Science 318 – Professional and Legal Perspectives in Nursing
Ms. Terri Olson, Assistant Professor

In response to the 21st Century nursing shortage, seven junior year nursing students performed a series of interventions in a 3rd – 4th grade elementary school classroom. Using a Nursing Diagnosis of *At Risk for Ineffective Therapeutic Regimen Management: Community, related to insufficient health care agency nurse staffing*, activities are designed to assess youth perceptions of nurses and to promote positive feelings of nursing as a potential career choice. The concepts of diversity and retention are intimated while the children are subtly recruited.

Community Action in Nursing Advocacy: Recruiting, Retention, and Diversity

The State of Alaska and the rest of our nation are in the midst of a shortage of trained, qualified nurses that is beginning to compromise the quality of care clients receive. Unfortunately, the nursing shortage is only projected to worsen in the coming years. The U.S. Department of Health & Human

Services estimates that by the year 2020, we will have only 1/3 of the nurses the country needs (as cited in Carpenter, 2000). Peter Buerhaus, PhD, RN, has studied the factors involved in the nursing shortage extensively. He states:

"The current nursing shortage is an early warning of what's coming. It's not another cyclical shortage. We need to emphasize that this shortage is no longer a nursing problem but a social problem. We need a social strategy so we don't have a huge shortfall. And we need to act now." (Nursing News, 2000).

There are a number of factors that will contribute to exacerbation of this problem for the foreseeable future. A much wider array of career choices is now available to women. This is highly evident at nursing schools and universities, where enrollments have declined in each of the last five years (Bednash, 2000). Recruiters are finding it increasingly difficult to attract women to nursing programs when lower stress, better paying careers exist in business and technology.

In addition, the nurse population has never been reflective of the U.S. population as a whole. Women account for more than 94% of the RN workforce, with males representing only six % (Hilton, 2001). Furthermore, although 28% of the U.S. population consists of racial and ethnic minorities, only ten % of nurses claim such membership (Robeznieks, 2000). The numbers in Alaska are not much different, where the percentage of male nurses is 7.6% and minority nurses account for only 10.6% of the workforce. In particular, Native Americans and Alaska Natives comprise 16.8% of the state's population, but only 2.4% of the registered nurses (Toebe, Dean, & DeLapp, 2001).

The real issue is not if or why there is a nursing shortage, but what can be done about it. The federal and state governments are offering educational loan and financial aid

incentives. The healthcare industry is beginning to provide competitive compensation and better working conditions. There are also actions nurses themselves can take to promote nursing as a career choice. These actions need not only target college-bound seniors or career-changing adults. One study shows that children's career choices are influenced by their own experiences and emphasizes the importance of exposing them to various careers from preschool and beyond with increasing details as they progress (Bobo, Hildreth, & Durodoye, 1998). Sara Barger, Dean of the Capstone College of Nursing at the University of Alabama believes elementary school is the right place to start encouraging future nurses (Robeznieks, 2000). Such an approach incorporates some social aspects to the solution as espoused by Buerhaus. Three positive strategies incorporating a social dimension that address the nursing shortage today would be to recruit more nurses, increase diversity of the nursing workforce, and to retain both current and newly hired nurses for as long as possible.

In the spring of 2002, our group had two opportunities to interact with students from a third and fourth grade classroom at Susitna Elementary School in Anchorage, Alaska. There were three areas we were assigned to address: Recruiting, Retention, and Diversity. That we were recruiting these children for nursing was obviously our primary goal. However, due to their age, we did not expect a formal commitment from them. This would be a long-term proposition, more like planting seeds. Rather, we sought to provide enough of a positive impression that the children would not de-select a career in nursing any time in the near future. Retention would be the most challenging concept to get across, and we had a pair of avenues to explore with diversity. With the need for nurses so great, we clearly had to encourage both genders and all ethnic groups to consider our profession. But nursing itself has a wonderfully

diverse assortment of practice choices that contribute to the appeal of the career. Nursing is not limited to hospitals, but that may not be evident to children.

We relied on the Nursing Process to guide our approach, but we also were mindful that recruiting is a type of sales pitch. A central tenet of sales is that the more positive contacts the seller has with a prospect, the better the chances of successfully closing a deal. We had only two one-hour sessions with this class; these sessions were a week apart and one would be devoted largely to assessment. So we sought many ways to extend our contact with the students, however insignificant the time or means might seem. To that end, prior to our initial contact with the children, we constructed a pair of posters for display in the classroom and school showing the student nurses engaged in nursing actions, heralding our impending arrival. To build some identification with the UAA Nursing Program, we chose the UAA colors of green and gold as the poster background colors and maintained that color scheme throughout our visits. The posters were delivered to the class one week prior to the first visit. We also devised as many ways to leave tangible reminders of our presence with the class as possible.

In addition to the concept presentations and nursing interventions to be furnished, we understood that we would be teaching these children some new things. The major types of learning are cognitive, affective, and psychomotor (Kozier, Erb, Berman, & Burke, 2000). In order to strengthen the impact of our information on the children, we strived to stimulate every one of their senses (sight, sound, touch, smell, and taste) at some point in our visit.

We had previously met with the class teacher to confirm days and times for our presence in her room, obtain permission to photograph our interactions with students, and also to begin to assess the characteristics and intellectual

capabilities of her students. The children were familiar with the school nurse and had also been exposed to several health-related subjects: hearing and the digestive system. We learned the class was ethnically diverse and roughly gender equal, made up of eight to ten year-olds.

Children in this age group are transitioning out of Piaget's pre-operational stage, where play activities such as arts and crafts and games are effective teaching tools (Cagle & Mandle, 2002). At the same time, the children are transitioning into what Piaget calls the concrete operational period, and they learn well by employing hands-on activities with concrete objects. Consider the differences between using a toy stethoscope (pre-operational) and a genuine one (concrete operational). They cannot yet perform abstract thinking (Cagle, 2002), and the concepts we needed to stress are fairly abstract. We structured our classroom activities with these limitations in mind, but we relied on the Nursing Process to guide our overall endeavors.

Having first assessed the extremity of the nursing shortage, we formulated our Nursing Diagnosis as *At Risk for Ineffective Therapeutic Regimen Management: Community, related to insufficient health care agency nurse staffing*. We had already performed some assessments of our target population and began planning our additional assessments and interventions.

We planned to use much of our first classroom hour directly assessing the children themselves regarding their perceptions of nurses and nursing. [Because the classroom was laid out in clusters of desks near the center of the room, we chose to position ourselves, dressed in street clothes, around the periphery of the room, making the children the center of our attention.] To begin, we would each ask a question of the class. They would be asked if they knew any nurses and where they worked; what type of work nurses did; what did nurses have to

know; and if any of the students had ever thought about becoming a nurse.

In addition to verbal interaction, we contrived an art activity to assess the children's understanding of gender and ethnic diversity in nursing. Paper doll cutouts of male and female figures were obtained in various colors: pink, brown, black, yellow and red. Different hair colors, shirts, pants, shoes, even stethoscopes were cut out of construction paper. A generous assortment of each cutout was put into bags for the children to choose from. It was intended that the children make a scene depicting nurses caring for a person. The resulting pieces of art would be evaluated for trends related to sex and skin color, then affixed to a display board for return to the class.

The final activity was designed simply as a fun intervention. Based on the game of Bingo, "NURSE" was a set of cards that had medical terms like "hemorrhage" and "fracture" in place of numbers. Terms would be called out and prizes would be awarded to students who had five terms in a row on their card. Anatomical pens and keychains would link the prize left behind with nurses and the medical profession.

Another tangible reminder of our presence intended to remain in the classroom was an anatomical chart of the human ear, which the class had studied earlier in the year.

Our first visit to the classroom went very well. The children were enthusiastic, attentive, and well mannered. The parents of several children had declined permission to photograph their children, so in the interests of client confidentiality, those students were avoided by the photographer while still being able to fully engage in the activities. Our initial question and answer period yielded much useful information regarding the introduction of both diversity and retention planned for our second visit. However, it was the art activity which provided the most beneficial data regarding diversity. The children were

impressed by the detail of the ear chart and clearly enjoyed the games of "NURSE" and the prizes that were distributed. Our use of medical terminology also contributed to expanding the children's vocabulary and spelling abilities. As the session concluded, the children were asked what they would like to see done the following week. Some students asked to be able to use nursing tools, some to see X-rays, a few to have their blood drawn, and all the students wanted to play more "NURSE." We were able to accommodate each of these requests to some degree.

In the intervening week, the assessment findings were evaluated and further interventions planned. The best example of retention in nursing was the revelation by one student that his grandmother had been a nurse for over 30 years and was still active in the profession. It was decided to emphasize this point at both the beginning and end of the next in-class session. Review of the art pieces revealed that our immediate presence had been a major influence on many of the themes produced. Although there was only one male student nurse in the group, a majority of the students produced scenes featuring a male nurse. There was a student nurse of Japanese descent who was also depicted and named in a relatively high number of pictures. Many of the children had chosen a yellow female figure for this nurse. One African-American student had gone to several other desks searching for brown figures, which were used to depict her male doctor, female nurse, and family of patients. Overall, there was little correlation between the children's art and the existing nurse population. Additionally, we discovered one girl had asked a student nurse not to include her artwork on the display. In the interest of client confidentiality, her artwork was returned to her directly the following week.

For the second session we planned to each dress in a different practice uniform: pink scrubs for the obstetrical nurse;

blue scrubs and surgical mask and cap for the operating room nurse; white scrubs for the student nurse; camouflage fatigues for the military nurse; and casual dress for the school nurse, traveling nurse and nursing professor. Again, we would be positioned around the students, only our questions were going to be more focused on recruiting, retention, and diversity issues. The questions dealt with what nurses did, how they learned nursing and how long it took, whether nurses could change to other types of nursing, how long their work day was, and how much money nurses could make.

To tie in the concept of retention, the students would be asked about the length of a nurse's career, and the class would then be reminded of the boy's grandmother and her 30 + year career. To bring the subject of diversity and the art activity together for them, we planned to pointedly ask how many boys were in the class, how many girls, African-Americans, Alaska Natives, Asians, etc. Then we would ask them the same questions about the student nurses. Finally, we would ask them if they thought the nurse population in general was more like themselves or more like the student nurses.

It was important that all of the students' requests for the next week be met. This demonstrates caring, responsiveness to their needs and concerns, and attention to detail. Students wished to use nursing tools, so diagnostic assessment equipment was obtained. Blood pressure cuffs, stethoscopes, otoscopes, tuning forks for cranial nerve testing and reflex mallets would be available to the children at stations in the room. Several X-ray films showing a broken arm were procured. It was, of course, impossible to perform actual blood draws on the children, so photographic series of phlebotomy and medication by injection were copied and placed on green and gold posters to be shown in the room.

The students' artwork from the prior week was affixed to a pair of display boards in the UAA colors. More prizes were obtained for "NURSE" games. Our final moments with the children were carefully planned and scripted to touch on all three of our main concepts: recruiting, retention, and diversity. We located and purchased the game "Operation" to leave in the classroom for use during indoor recesses, and of course, to remind the class where it had come from. And to crown the sensory stimulation, after determining the class held no diabetic children, two peach Jell-O molds were prepared in the shape of brains. This was meant to represent the brain as a symbol of both learning and nursing, while literally bribing the children with a sweet snack.

This second session went even better than the first. During the initial question and answer period, discourse focused on our core concepts. For recruiting we told them in general terms about the nurse shortage, that we thought nursing was a good choice, and we hoped they would think so too. Our behaviors were deliberately plotted to provide positive role models, leaving a good impression that some children might someday wish to emulate. For retention, we let them know that when it came time for them to choose a career we would still be nursing. We made particular mention of the boy in the class whose grandmother was still a practicing nurse. For diversity, we noted the art activity, which showed a more diverse nursing population than actually exists. Notwithstanding the current state of affairs, we encouraged the children to make the world as they saw it.

Allowing the children to circulate among different stations using diagnostic tools generated an enormous amount of enthusiasm. They gaped in amazement at a student nurse's eardrum through an otoscope and immediately compared what they had seen with the anatomical ear chart which had been

hung in the classroom. They laughed at the belly noises they were able to hear through a stethoscope. A vibrating tuning fork placed on top of their cranium to test auditory nerves would send them squealing to the back of the line so they could repeat the sensation again and again. Though some students were disappointed we hadn't brought actual syringes into the room, they all understood why we had made picture posters instead and asked many questions about each step in drawing blood. There was so much energy and activity going on that we were reluctant to halt the process. We started to run out of time.

When it was announced that "NURSE" would have to be foregone, the students pleaded with their teacher to allow us to stay longer. She acquiesced without hesitation, restoring a joyful mood to the room. After a half dozen games it really was time for us to conclude our contact and to perform our next-to-last and most important intervention.

It was mentioned earlier that recruiting, at an elemental sort of level, is really nothing more than a sales pitch. We were trying to sell these kids an idea: that nurses are cool, that nursing is cool. But we could not get there just by talking about the rewards of patient care, the vast array of opportunities available, and the good salary and benefits, which were all mentioned. We had to use what Social Psychologists refer to as a peripheral route of persuasion (Myers, 2002). We tried to use the effect of emotions over reason, of good feelings instead of facts. So in that regard, everything done and said in Room 17 at Susitna Elementary School was consciously and purposefully done to generate good feelings in all those children. But at some point, we had to bring it all together and ask for what we wanted. We had to ask them to consider being nurses.

Again, we could have no expectation of commitment. We could not collar a nine year-old child and say, "Come on now, sign this letter of intent to be a nurse when you're 18!"

The situation is not appropriate, and, as mentioned, the developmental level is not right. Using the analogy of planting seeds, when the fireweed goes to seed here in Alaska in the fall, how hard does it hit the ground? It floats down softly. And does it immediately grow into another plant and bloom? No, it takes a while. That was the approach we had to take. So in a carefully choreographed manner, a nursing student went right into the middle of their cluster of desks, squatted down to their eye level and said:

"In ten years you'll be getting ready to graduate from High School, and you'll be having to choose what you want to be. Some of you may choose to be doctors, or teachers, or computer programmers, or paleontologists, but we hope some of you choose to think about, just think about, being nurses. We had a great time working with you the last two weeks, and we'd love to work with you again some day. We think nursing is a great choice and we'll all probably still be doing it when you get out of nursing school, too." (A. P. Feild, personal communication, March 11, 2002)

The purpose of the nursing student's posture was to be on the same eye level as the children, showing them respect, and treating them as equals. Mentioning other career choices uses a soft approach while validating and respecting their own individual choices. The term "think about" is soft, with no pressure to act. The phrase "great time working with you" uses a strong word and treats the children as equals. The word "love" is a strong word with positive emotion attached to it. "Work with you again" shows them respect, and again, treats them as equals. The phrase "great choice" from an authority figure guides them toward an acceptable behavior. "We'll still be doing it" ties in the concept of retention and longevity of career. Finally, "when you get out of nursing school" is a presumed

close: It presumes the children have already chosen the course of action we want them to take.

That is a rather heavy moment to leave on. Using the peripheral route of persuasion, good feelings instead of facts and reason, the mood needed to be shifted back to "fun" rather than "the future." So we bribed them with sugar in the form of Jell-O Brains, just so they would think nurses were cool. The fragrant aroma of the Jell-O in that paper and chalk-dust filled room was delicious, and the children were thrilled with the treat they would consume shortly after our departure.

As the student nurses were about to leave, one of the children asked the teacher if we could all pose for a group photo with the class. All the rest of the children raucously echoed the request, so we delayed yet a few more moments to take several snapshots using the class's camera. Since this picture was for the class and not for us as an outside group, no parental permission was needed for everyone to be included in this final, fortuitous intervention. The children were now beginning to devise their own ways to remind themselves of a positive experience. It seems we had accomplished a least some of what we had set out to do.

We conducted no formal research in the classroom; we made subjective, qualitative assessments rather than conduct surveys or pre- and post-tests. In order to leave nothing but positive impressions with a ten year-old, we certainly did not want to make them take a test! But even though our formal time in the classroom was now finished, we were not yet done with our interventions. To further extend our positive contacts with the class, we constructed another pair of green and gold posters, this time depicting our interactions with the children over our two plus hours with them. The posters were delivered one week after the second session and remained on display in the class-

room for many weeks, in close proximity to the anatomical ear chart.

To conclude the nursing process, we evaluated our activities and interventions to determine whether or not our objectives were met.

First, in regard to our service learning activity, we did indeed present the concepts of recruiting, retention, and diversity to elementary school children as we were assigned to do. The developmental level of the students made the task a real challenge. However, the energy and enthusiasm exhibited by the students, the smiles on all their faces, and their thoughtful responses led us to believe we had not only made a good impression on them, but they had also understood the information we imparted to them.

Second, in the broader context of the nursing shortage, did we do anything that would possibly ease the shortage of nurses in the future? Unfortunately, the timeline for that particular evaluation is much longer. These elementary school students were encouraged to consider nursing careers. Encouraging students to enter into our profession is not likely to exacerbate a shortage, it can only help alleviate it. In truth, the nursing shortage going on in this country is becoming massive, and our contribution toward easing the burden is very small. While we came away from our experiences with the children with feelings of optimism and enthusiasm, we as individuals will probably never know whether our interventions truly made a positive impact. It will be 12 - 15 years before anyone knows whether any of the seeds we scattered in a small classroom at Susitna Elementary School will grow into a living breathing nurse.

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Booker T. Washington and Alexis de Tocqueville: Nature of Race in America

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Political Science 330 – American Political Tradition
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American Booker T. Washington and Frenchman Alexis de Tocqueville had seemingly little in common. Washington, born a slave in Virginia in 1856[1], just three years before Tocqueville passed away[2], followed an entirely different path to prominence as he persevered in pulling himself "up from slavery." Tocqueville, a French aristocrat, could attribute his family name to the fiefdom in Normandy where his family resided. Washington, born without the knowledge of a surname, quickly fabricated one at the insistence of his teacher[3]. Despite their disparate backgrounds, they share a surprisingly similar appraisal of the issue of race in America in the nineteenth century.

Washington fundamentally agrees with Tocqueville's assessment of the races in America and the challenges they face, but the realities of the post-bellum United States mean that where Tocqueville could be content merely to warn of coming problems, Washington must propose solutions in their aftermath. Thus, Washington's assessment of the prospects for the integration of the non-white races into American society is more favorable—probably because he was genuinely an optimist and because a gloomy depiction of the prospects for black economic integration would only lead to the denial of donations

and support from whites that Washington felt were essential to his cause. A final distinction between Washington and Tocqueville's treatment of the races stems from the different intended audiences of their books. Tocqueville intended his book to be read only by whites, and probably elite ones at that. Because of this, he had no compunction against warning of a dire threat to Southern whites from an oppressed black population. Washington had the unenviable position of convincing the whites reading his book that blacks posed no threat to them, while simultaneously convincing blacks that it was in their interests to pose no threat to whites.

In *Democracy in America*, Alexis de Tocqueville divides the inhabitants of America into three races—Europeans, Indians, and Negroes[4]. The great bulk of his two-volume tome concerns itself with the progress of the descendants of Europeans in the burgeoning democracy, but he believes that the enslaved descendants of Africans represent a portentous and unavoidable crisis. Tocqueville envisages only two possibilities for dealing with the iniquity of involuntary servitude in America—ending slavery and attempting integration or continuing slavery as long as possible[5]. Tocqueville presciently foresees as the result of slavery "the most horrible of all civil wars."[6] Though Tocqueville believed that slavery was morally indefensible[7], he foresaw emancipation leading to frustration on the part of blacks, predicting that "they will soon become indignant at being deprived of almost all the rights of citizens; and not being able to become the equals of the whites, they will not be slow to show themselves their enemies."[8]

Booker T. Washington probably assumed that many whites held the same opinion as Tocqueville and hoped to assuage their concerns. He concedes in *Up From Slavery* that blacks initially exercised their newfound enfranchisement with principled contrarianism, confident that if they opposed

whomever the white man supported they were making the correct choice.[9] Lest the white reader fear resentful and empowered black throngs threatening to loose the white grip on Southern political institutions, or worse, fomenting an outright race war, Washington strikes a conciliatory tone, declaring somewhat vaguely that "the [black] race is learning to vote from principle, for what the voter considers to be for the best interests of both races."[10] Washington devotes many pages in *Up From Slavery* to examples and arguments meant to demonstrate that blacks should not be seen as a threat to whites in America. He initiates this pattern in the first chapter by noting that even during the Civil War, the death of one of his young masters—no doubt fighting to assure a victory that would lead to the preservation of slavery—elicited not "sham sorrow" but a genuine outpouring of grief "only second to that in the 'big house.'"[11] Washington then claims that blacks are so loyal and trustworthy that had an intruder violated the sanctity of the plantation while the men were away fighting, the slaves would have "laid down their lives" to protect the women and children.[12]

This theme of black deference, loyalty, and benevolence features prominently in Washington's legendary Atlanta Exposition Address as well. Washington wants to assure whites that he does not expect any major recompense for hundreds of years of maltreatment, declaring: "It is at the bottom of life we must begin, and not at the top."[13] Washington reminds the largely white audience that it was blacks "whose fidelity and love you have tested," and who "without strikes and labor wars, tilled your fields, cleared your forests, builded your railroads…"[14] Washington even goes so far as to question those blacks who had the temerity to assert their legal rights, proclaiming that the "wisest" blacks "understand that the agitation of questions of social equality is the extremest folly."[15] The ebullient applause that followed his address indicates that

Washington had addressed the concerns of the audience and the prognostications of Tocqueville.

Tocqueville and Washington are both emphatic that the "peculiar institution" has had deleterious effects on both whites and blacks by devaluing labor to the point that in the minds of both races in the South, slavery and labor become one and the same. Tocqueville writes that in the South, "one cannot find workers belonging to the white race, [for] they would fear resembling slaves."[16] Washington observes: "The whole machinery of slavery was so constructed to cause labor, as a rule to be looked upon as a badge of degradation, of inferiority. Hence labor was something that both races on the plantation sought to escape."[17] In fact, Washington's entire argument that blacks should learn practical trades and eschew abstruse learning is predicated upon the notion that for the South to succeed economically, it must necessarily recognize the dignity of labor.

Tocqueville observes that the "American of the South is more spontaneous, more spiritual, more open, more generous, more intellectual, and more brilliant." In contrast, the Northerner is "more active, more reasonable, more enlightened, and more skillful."[18] Washington, while agreeing with this assessment, desires a melding of the two, combining the generosity and spirituality of the Southerner with the active, enlightened, and skillful methods of the Northerner. Washington is fiercely loyal to the South, calling on Southern whites and blacks to "cast down your bucket" and remain in the land of their birth.[19] Still he recognizes the validity of Tocqueville's observations on the devaluation of labor, particularly for an impoverished race with little "book learning."

Tocqueville observes that the black inhabitants of America attempt, rather pitifully, to imitate whites in most every way. He remarks: "he [the Negro] admires his tyrants more than he hates them and finds his joy and his pride in

servile imitation of those who oppress him."[20] Washington certainly echoes this sentiment. He describes how blacks believed that learning Western languages such as Greek and Latin would make them "very superior human being[s]."[21] He recounts the tale of a visit to a cabin in which its inhabitants had only one fork among the four of them, because they had spent their money on a sixty-dollar organ.[22] Blacks so sought to imitate the trappings of success in the white man's world that they were sacrificing their most basic needs for luxury items such as ornate clocks and sewing machines.[23] Washington himself extols the toothbrush as a pinnacle of civilization.[24]

Though both Tocqueville and Washington focus the bulk of their attention on blacks, they also comment on the position of the indigenous people of America. Tocqueville and Washington are largely in agreement in their analysis of the natives of America, differing only in their optimism about the Indian's prospects for assimilation. Tocqueville observes that in contrast to the blacks, "the Indian [is placed] at the extreme limits of freedom."[25] Tocqueville also contrasts the servile obeisance of blacks with the Indian, whose "imagination [is] filled up with the pretended nobility of his origin." Repeatedly, Tocqueville remarks upon the Indian's strong notions of "pride."[26] The Indian, Tocqueville declares, "believes himself superior to us [whites]," and eschews work as "a dishonor."[27] Tocqueville carries the consequence of this unyielding pride to its logical conclusion: an obstinate but comparatively impotent race will cease to exist by the time white settlers have populated the west coast.[28]

Washington concurs with Tocqueville's observation of the Indian's character, writing: "I knew that the average Indian felt himself above the white man, and, of course, he felt himself far above the Negro, largely on account of the fact of the Negro having submitted to slavery—a thing which the Indian

would never do."[29] While their descriptions are similar, as with blacks, Washington is more optimistic about the willingness and ability of Indians to become "civilized." He reports that the Indians admitted to his Tuskegee Institute seemed to possess as much of an aptitude for practical trades as his black pupils.[30]

Both Washington and Tocqueville focus most of their treatment of the minority races of America on blacks. On this subject, there is much agreement between them. Washington accepts and even glorifies the notion of blacks as servile and smitten with white ways, but he repeatedly works to minimize the threatening presence of blacks in the South. By doing so, he hopes to avoid the very strife of which Tocqueville warns.

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[3] Washington, 20.

[4] Tocqueville, 302-3.

[5] Ibid., 346.

[6] Tocqueville, 346.

[7] Ibid.

[8] Ibid.

[9] Washington, 64-5.

[10] Ibid.

[11] Ibid., 7.

[12] Ibid., 8.

[13] Ibid., 129.

[14] Ibid.

[15] Ibid., 131.

[16] Tocqueville, 332.

[17] Washington, 10.

[18] Tocquevelle, 361.

[19] Washington, 129.

[20] Ibid., 304.

[21] Washington, 467.

[22] Ibid., 66.

[23] Ibid.

[24] Washington, 44.

[25] Tocqueville, 305.

[26] Ibid., 305-6.

[27] Ibid., 314.

[28] Ibid., 312.

[29] Washington, 57.

[30] Ibid., 57-8.

The Sacred Rites of Pride: Sexual Motivation in Pope's *The Rape of the Lock*

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Alexander Pope achieved recognition for his rare genius within his lifetime and was celebrated as an embodiment of the Neo-Classicist values of reason, order and a deep reverence for all things Greek. However, it was the qualities that set him apart from other Age of Enlightenment writers that have made him the most enduring poet of his time. In *The Rape of the Lock* Pope exhibits a great deal of sensitivity for his subject and creates a work that is an enduring example of the poet's impressive capacity to capture feminine motivation and articulate the tension of repressed sexuality. It is also a humorous and forgiving portrayal of one young woman's discovery of sexual identity. *The Rape of the Lock* transcends the ideology of the Neo-Classical era by utilizing universal issues such as pride, social pressure and relations between the sexes. Pope's view of women was less misogynistic than was typical for his era, which made it easier for him to recognize that prideful obsession with appearance can be a result of sexual repression and enabled him to create a portrait of emotional stagnation that remains valid, even in modern society.

Women played an extremely limited role in eighteenth century English society, especially in the almost

exclusively Protestant upper class. There was little dispute to the idea that women were emotionally infantile as well as generally weaker and less capable than men. Many modern scholars have argued that Pope perpetuated this general belief system, and, on the surface, this may seem to be the case. (It is no surprise that the proponents of this debate are, with some exceptions, divided according to sex, with men speaking in defense of the poet). However, upon closer examination, one finds that Pope displayed a literary genius unusually sensitive to the social pressures placed upon upper-class females by Age of Enlightenment standards.

Pope actively expressed his concern over the repression of women, going so far as to declare passages of Homer's *Iliad*, as translated by his friend and colleague John Dryden, a "severity upon the ladies." According to a letter from Pope to Dryden, the poet preferred the French scholar Anne Dacier's translation of the same work, "not only as it is more noble and instructive [. . .] but more respectful of the ladies in particular" (as cited in Mack 357). Numerous incidences of this sort can be cited throughout Pope's life evidencing the poet's disquiet over Protestant England's subjugation of females.

The speech given by Clarissa in Canto V of *The Rape of the Lock* is one of the passages most telling of Pope's sense of the unfairness toward women in the Age of Enlightenment. "That *men* [italics mine] may say when we the front box grace, / behold the first in virtue as in face!" (lines 9-34). Through Clarissa, Pope reminds his audience of both sexes to admire unaffected morality, since "merit wins the soul" (322-23). Though she directly addresses Belinda, Clarissa also admonishes the men in her audience to credit women as much for their honorableness as for their aesthetic value, a sentiment that echoes the modern feminist concern that women not only be recognized for various contributions to society but also be

respected as valid members of that society and not as secondary citizens. As a middle class Catholic, Pope was an outsider in Belinda's world of upper-class boredom and repression, which allowed him to objectively observe contemporary social mores. In addition, this accounts for some of his empathy for the Protestant women he often wrote about.

Himself a sort of sexual non-entity, Pope suffered a sterility enforced by many years of crippling illness. Contemporary and critic John Dennis referred to Pope as "the hunch-back'd toad" (Mack 183), and an artist for whom the poet sat described him as "about four feet six high; very hunch-backed and very deformed" (153). The painter continues at great length detailing the distortion of Pope's facial muscles. In short, Pope was not a handsome man. In a vain attempt to undermine his enormous popularity, many jealous rivals circulated rumors of the poet's frequenting prostitutes, keeping mistresses and participating in other forms of debauchery. But in truth these claims were unsubstantiated, and it is most likely that Pope led a very lonely and sexually frustrated existence.

Pope most emphatically did not promote promiscuity. However, as many of his closest friends were female, it is not unreasonable to speculate that Pope felt that his own social emasculation was emotionally comparable to the sexual constraint enforced upon women in his era. Thus, Belinda's reaction to her shorn tresses, while not the most mature of responses, is not altogether disproportionate to the offense given. Pope, of all people, understood the social implications included in the loss of sexual marketability. Belinda had effectively become tainted goods.

The art of satire lends itself to comical criticism, and though it appears that Pope is mocking the women of English Neo-Classical culture, in reality he is criticizing the value system that necessitates pride. It is interesting to note that the *Oxford*

English Dictionary lists an archaic definition for *pride* as a "state of sexual desire or heat, especially in female animals" (463). This definition would surely have been known to Pope as it is used numerous times in Shakespeare's plays, most notably in *Othello*, a text directly referred to in *The Rape of the Lock*. It is impossible to know whether or not Pope intentionally chose this word because of its dual application to his theme. What is clear is that, although he realizes and ridicules the extravagant pride of the English upper class, he also realized the dangerous function of pride in a society so repressed that physical appearance is the best, and indeed sometimes the only form of free expression.

The "sacred rites of Pride" described in Canto I skillfully illustrate Pope's awareness of the social scrutiny that Belinda must bear. Sitting before her mirror Belinda fixes her attention on attaining the social standard of beauty through a catalogue of cosmetic accessories among which a Bible is nonchalantly tossed, an unmistakable reference to the constant emphasis of morality in Protestant ideology. Belinda precariously seeks to conform to an ideal of beauty that demands that she be both bewitchingly enticing and angelically chaste. Pope denounces the culture that demanded such impossible standards of its young women in much the same way that modern humanists denounce American culture for perpetuating ideals that promote unhealthy lifestyles such as co-dependency and anorexia.

Pope was brought up in a Catholic home at a time where most of the upper class was Protestant. Mack suggests the possibility that this is the reason that Pope developed such a sympathetic understanding of Protestant society's pressures on women and portrayed them with respect as well as wit. The Catholic tradition at the time called for devotional rites to the Virgin Mary and dietary observances, the responsibility of

which most often fell to the women in the households making them valuable and even revered members of the family. Conversely, there was an intense effort among Protestants to suppress any ideology that allotted power or freedom to females. Olwen Hufton discusses the Protestant concept of women in *The Prospect Before Her: A History of Women in Western Europe 1550-1880:* "Women epitomized the ignorant and the superstitious, the sexually lax and the profane. Religious reform focused on chastity and obedience [. . .] They were, in short, to be brought into line" (369-70). The concept of gender roles with which Pope was raised would have significantly affected his perspective of Protestant sexual strictures.

For a young woman to have, let alone express, physical desire in Pope's England was unthinkable. Instead, she was required to suppress her natural sensuality and feign indifference. She was still, however, expected to garner enough interest from the males of her own social class to secure a husband from among their ranks. Therefore, her best substitution for outright interest was her physical presentation. Such a preoccupation with appearance leads to pride, thus pride became the socially acceptable substitute for female sexuality.

Pope acknowledges this conundrum at the climax of the story, just before the Baron steals Belinda's curl:

> Just in that instant, anxious Ariel sought
> The close recesses of the virgin's thought;
> As on the nosegay in her breast reclined,
> He watched the ideas rising in her mind,
> Sudden he viewed, in spite of all her art,
> An earthly lover lurking at her heart.
> Amazed, confused, he found his power expired
> Resigned to fate, and with a sigh retired. (503)

Here we have what at first glance appears to be the crisis of the story, but in actuality the moment of crisis has

occurred much earlier. The point of decisive action would seem to be when Belinda chooses between her chastity as represented by Ariel and her sexual nature as a human. However, this occurred before the action of the poem even begins.

In Canto I when Belinda awakens, the first thing she does is read a billet-doux from the Baron, which drives all thoughts of guarding her virtue from her head. *This* is the moment in which she relinquishes her chastity. Put quite simply, Belinda falls in love. This event is purposely buried, emphasizing that she actually has very little choice when it comes to her sexuality because the natural course of maturity demands the surrender of sexual innocence. In this Canto, the poet stresses the importance of Belinda's vulnerable purity, even to the point of equating her with a child. He describes her as "fair and innocent" and mentions both her "infant thought" and "infant cheeks" (494-95). Through use of analogy he establishes her purity and makes it clear that she is ready prey for the Baron, who undoubtedly knows how to manipulate her naiveté in order to excite her curiosity and gain her trust. He sets her up to be violated. It is in this way that the actions of the Baron are comparable to rape.

As it is, Ariel and the audience discover the heroine's interest simultaneously. In his essay, *A World of Artifacts: The Rape of the Lock as Social History*, C.E. Nicholson discusses the significance of the Sylphs' inability to protect her: "The elaborate fiction of their particularized domain collapses when she succumbs to the natural occurrence of sexual desire" (108). The moment when Belinda's identity as a sexual being is revealed is when her heavenly guardian abandons her.

Pope as narrator invites his audience to witness this particular young woman's sexual awakening and addresses it with startling compassion, knowing that for Belinda to acknowledge her own sexuality, no matter how innocently, will

render her a fallen woman. He does not condemn her for her feelings; rather, he relays the blame back to the Baron by creating the image of a sexual predator. The Baron "lurking at her heart" reinforces Belinda's role as victim. The "ideas rising in her mind" alludes to the young virgin's sexual curiosity, while the phrase "earthly lover" illustrates that carnality is the motivation for that curiosity. Ariel departs from her, "resigned to fate." He accepts that Belinda is beyond his rescue because she has already been seduced by the Baron. Belinda ultimately cannot hide her sexual curiosity from her airy guardian "in spite of all her art," though she succeeds in hiding it from everyone else, except Pope. Thus, the poet concedes that Belinda is putting forth every effort to conceal her attraction, as mandated by Neo-Classical/Protestant society.

On a more generalized level, Pope is criticizing the ambiguity of the eighteenth century ideal of womanhood and recognizing that this is what forces women into being ridiculously prideful in a last attempt to gain some degree of sexual power. In Canto III, during the card game that Belinda and an unnamed young man play with the Baron, Pope exhibits his true brilliance as both an observer of human behavior and a symbolist. While to modern readers the detailed and carefully crafted innuendos of this scene are obscured by archaism, the significance of the metaphor remains obvious. The game is a meticulously structured analogy of sexual contest. The language used by Pope throughout this scene becomes increasingly suggestive: anticipation "swells her breast," players are "forced to yield," a king "puts forth one manly leg" and "throngs promiscuous" cover the table (lines 315-16). C.E. Nicholson calls the game a "fantasy of erotic substitution" (108). That Belinda wins the game only serves to further illustrate that while still under the guardianship of the Sylphs (who are assisting with her hand) she remains above reproach.

Belinda's melodramatic reaction to being violated is propelled by simultaneous, yet contradictory, emotions: guilt and shame at having allowed the Baron to arouse her desires. "What moved my heart with youthful lords to roam?" and fear that everyone will somehow perceive her earlier interest: "Oh hadst thou, cruel! been content to seize / hair less in sight, or any hairs but these?" (507-08). Her one small hope of remaining socially untarnished is to play up her role as victim.

Alexander Pope's *The Rape of the Lock* was a cultural favorite in its own time and remains one of the best loved English poems. In the Age of Enlightenment, a poet's value was determined by how well he expressed the ideals of the Neo-Classical movement. Unquestionably, Pope was a master of these. Time, however, measures a poet's value by a different and altogether more discerning standard. When a poem's relevancy has withstood the upheaval and restructuring of social, political and economic ideals for almost three centuries it offers a genuinely unique understanding of the human experience. It is here, in the realms of human emotion, that Pope's genius is without peer.

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When You Build a Place to Shoot

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Creative Writing and Literary Arts 490 – The Writer's Craft: Nonfiction
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If you draw an empty compound to test its weight, don't let go of the string, this ruins an arrowless bow. When you're eleven, you never think to ask your dad why this happens, you just take his word for it and do everything to avoid the telling, high-pitched twang of an empty cable released accidentally. You don't want him to think you don't understand what he's trying to teach you out in the garage after work. You don't want him to think you don't appreciate his time. You don't want him to think you don't take care of your bow.

You don't really understand what the wheel cams at each end do, how they rotate on an offset axis when you pull, or why. Just count to sixty in your mind and try to hold good form for one whole minute without shaking, because that's how you know the weight you can pull. Thirty pounds. Your fingertips turn purple, then white, your girl biceps and bird shoulders quiver when it's time to fist your grip and slowly control-release the string. But you would pass this test to show your dad you're strong enough, you'll carry your own bow and gear through the desert, you won't start crying when you're tired, sweaty, you'll wear old jeans and sunscreen and his camouflage ball cap, you'll

shoot at monotonous black and white paper targets until they're shredded.

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In northern Nevada, the Silver Arrow Bowmen leased land from the BLM and started building the archery range in the early '80's—a sprawl of trails and hay bale targets stacked in rock outcroppings hidden behind Lemmon Valley, a half an hour north of Reno, at the very back of the subdivision where houses and corrals petered, and sage brush dominated the hillside. I rode with my dad in the white Ford truck or sometimes in the Itasca motor home, wobbling, palms down, at the foldout table with my little sister as he battled the rut roads and dust from trucks ahead. In the wood-veneer kitchen, my mom shuffled chopped ham, Roman Meal bread, iceberg lettuce, and French's mustard on the tiny sink edge, using little plastic cutting boards she'd bought just for these picnics in the motor home. My dad would eat three sandwiches doused with black cracked pepper and too much salt. I could eat two plus a pickle. And then we would work.

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"Your bow has to fit." He always says this, but you're not sure what he means. A bow doesn't fit the same way tennis shoes do, or gloves, or your too-small clothes. He says, "The fit's a personal thing. If it feels right, you'll shoot better, and that's how you'll know." You have a sweatshirt that feels right, so you go by this.

Your dad clips his silver release aid onto the string and pulls, anchoring his thumb behind his neck, and then holding, holding, breathing through his nose. His fingernails are sometimes split from his work, filled with black stains in the cracks and around dry cuticles and you watch as he navigates

the small white trigger. You think he has this tool, this clip, so he can pull as far as possible, but really, he uses it to hold a full draw longer than he could with three fingers tensed on the string. He says holding that way hurts his wrist and arm after a while; he shows you where by flexing the muscles in his thick forearm and swiveling his right hand while his fingers drum the air.

You still pull with your fingers though, locking in the invisible anchor point at the corner of your mouth. This is your draw length, from anchor point to the end of your bow arm where the arrow rests. If this length isn't long enough, you won't build up enough energy to release the arrow quickly. It could fall short or bounce off the target like a toy arrow would. A longer draw with more weight—like your dad's—stores more energy in the bow, but is harder for you to hold. You think, someday you'd like to hold the string as long as he does, take the time to rely on your sites properly instead of hurrying and guessing and impatiently releasing the arrow. Someday you'll be good enough to have your own silver release clip on a leather strap hinged on the back of your hand. You'll be shooting so much your wrist will start to hurt.

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Everyone from the archery league helped build the range on weekends. Trucks and campers tilted in haphazard dusty circles, crushing sagebrush underneath tires until club members learned where and how to park. We crowded at a long wooden picnic table to eat Ball Park hot dogs, drink soda, and graze cellophane-wrapped Danishes that left our fingers sticky until the dust recoated them. These were the white sugar, white flour, packaged treats my sister and I called "Dad's Kind of Food" and tore through long before opening the tin of mom's crumbly oatmeal cookies.

I filled wheelbarrows full of red-orange rock and wobbled around the mounds of wither-bent sagebrush, listening to chucker whomp-whomping in the hills, and chasing jackrabbits from their secret still places. I don't remember anybody else's kids helping on the trails, maybe my sister, but she was only six. I knew I was building something permanent, lining cleared paths with rocks, digging up roots, and cutting gray brush. This was our place to shoot; I wanted it to look perfect. I wanted everyone to see I worked just as hard as my dad.

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Some older kids you met, who are already in middle school, say in P.E. next year you'll get to shoot a bow, but you know those are just recurves. Long and lightweight, they look flimsy; seem naked without color-coded pinhead sights and plastic-coated cables, screws and bolts and cams. They don't seem as powerful, more like toys. When you draw a recurve bow, the limbs flex towards you and this is where the energy is stored. But when you draw a compound bow, the limb tips aren't pulled back; they are pulled toward each other, turning on wheels. The energy is held in these flexing limbs until you're ready to release it.

You think you'll have to ask the P.E. teacher if you can bring your compound bow to shoot instead, your own leather quiver, aluminum arrows. You think there will be boys who will want to ask questions about your bow. You think you could even teach the archery segment of seventh grade P.E.

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At the range one afternoon, two archery wives carrying a cardboard box of stencils and spray cans said, "We need someone artistic, who won't make a big mess." Their foreheads furrowed channels of grime and sweat. I like to imagine my dad

straightening his cap, pointing at my head, smiling, and saying, "I think I got your kid right here." It seems like the kind of thing he'd say, a small comment I could thrive on for days afterwards. Other families' sons screamed and tore through the desert, dirt-scraped and bloody, and for once, I was glad I wasn't a boy. I'd have made the mistake of running off with them, forgetting that sometimes you have to work at hard jobs so you get to work on the good jobs. Dad called this, "Paying Your Dues."

I left my rake and hiked away with the two women, carrying cutout paper numbers and spray to mark cylindrical concrete yardage markers at all twenty-eight targets. I'd never used a stencil before; I learned to hear when the can of paint was empty by the ball free rolling inside, how to peel the segmented number forms away so wet paint wouldn't smear. The target range markers were sprayed white, the field ranges red. I don't remember what the difference was between them, but paint mist settled in the same dusty circles on the ground and on my hands, leaving a layered pink film to scrape from my fingernails for a week. I didn't try to wash it off, even when my dad suggested his powdered Boraxo soap would work best.

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You have to hang your bow if you're tired, or rest it on the top of your foot if you need to lean on it for a minute. Never, ever, in the dirt. You'd teach those seventh grade boys about that, how to take care of gear. You could tell them about the day you and Dad rested on a tailgate, drinking 7-Up, while two bowmen hiked to a rest point humping wooden bow racks shaped like giant crosses on their shoulders, the bars already outfitted with large gear hooks, the base ready for cementing into the ground. You could tell boys about the joke your dad made, when he fake-scratched his head, pointed at the crosses, and said, "Wait a minute…seems like I've seen this picture

somewhere before…" and how you laughed until soda fizzed from your nose because you got the joke. You could say, "Sundays at the range was kind of like church," if you thought a boy would understand that.

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I shot from twenty-five yards, after the men and women had shot from seventy-five or eighty, always the last one to face each target. I stood with my left foot in front, squinted my right eye, and wrinkled my nose while setting up the perfect site picture. The first thing I learned was to give everyone space so they would respect mine, never shuffling until the last arrow was released. We kept the groups small, five or six, one person shooting at a time, and no one spoke until it was time to march forward and record scores. My dad always kept a ballpoint pen in his breast pocket so if I got a bull's eye, or just a nice tight group, he could write my name next to the holes on the target. The shooters behind us always knew which holes were mine.

Dad painted the crest on my arrows after he built them; I chose white and green stripes separated by fine black lines, green and white plastic veins, a clear yellow nock. My quiver was white with a unicorn head I drew with black Sharpie pen. We spent the hour after dinner shooting in the back yard when tournaments were on the calendar.

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Your archery equipment is just like his, only smaller; some things he's had to cut down with scissors so they'll fit your small hands. On your left forearm, you wear a leather guard to protect your skin from the snapping string, but it still doesn't stop the fear of the purple bruises. "Keep your arm straight," he says, but you still have the habit of unlocking your elbow at the exact moment you release the string, that half a millimeter of

movement sending your arrows zinging into the dirt or over the tops of targets. He says, "Kid, you didn't just pitch your arrow into the rocks, did you?" You need help sighting a bow; you need help remembering to hold your aim position even after the arrow is gone.

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For my dad's fortieth birthday party, my mom baked a round layer cake and frosted it with unsweetened whipping cream before I squeezed tubes of black gel frosting in a target pattern on top. I made an arrow from a wooden skewer, trimmed plastic feather-veins so they'd look the right size when glued to the end, and even drew a striped crest with markers; I stuck it in the bull's eye of the cake, just like it had flown through the air and landed.

I ran into the middle of the back yard's dusty volleyball game, where my dad was playing uneven-teamed with birthday guests and a borrowed net, to tell him his cake was ready, but while I stood waiting, Greg Jones served the ball and it slammed into my chest. I'd only had the wind knocked out of me once before, but I didn't remember being this embarrassed or noticing how my tears kept coming even though I wasn't crying. I kept trying to hide my pink face in the crook of my dad's arm.

After everyone filed through the sliding glass door to surround the candle-lit cake, I still felt like I couldn't breathe or talk and I wanted to know why the arrow was missing from the center, I wanted to tell him the most important part was gone, but he'd already blown out the candles and everyone was teasing him about getting old. My mom finally said, "Honey, I'm sorry, it's in the garbage because it was too close to the candles and it caught on fire." I found the blackened skewer in the trash, and it snapped in half at its weakest charred point. I wanted to show him that I'd made an arrow, but the trimmed veins had

shriveled and peeled away from the glue, melted and crisp. I had no idea this would happen.

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Your dad is forty and you think this is old. He laughs with his friends about the strawberry blonde hair on his head, how it's thinning, but he always wears a ball cap with a mesh back, so you never notice. You have a concern about getting older, about the kids in middle school who sneak drinks and smoke pot, because you're afraid they'll ask you to and you'll feel dumb if you say no. He says, "You can just tell them you're in training, that's what I did." You've seen the track and field pictures, your younger dad with the blonde flat top, the pole for vaulting. You've watched him dismantle a silver track trophy as tall as you to make smaller trophies for kids in the archery league. You say, "I could be in training for archery," and he says, "You bet, kid."

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When I was twelve, I won a copper-colored belt buckle. I was the Nevada State Champion in my division—a "Cub"—but once I became a teenager I'd advance to the next level—"Junior" or "Youth," and I remember realizing I'd have to shoot against sixteen-year-olds from Las Vegas. I couldn't beat them. In seventh grade P.E., things weren't the way I thought they'd be, either. No one remembered to stand still, or be quiet when I was setting up a shot. I thought the girls were stupid for not understanding they couldn't walk forward and pull arrows from the targets when other people were still shooting. I wanted to hold my draw position and say, "Hey! You wanna get an arrow in your back?" It seemed like the kind of thing that should have been said. The kind of thing my dad warned me about. At least most of the boys understood this. I couldn't bring

my compound bow to school because it was considered a weapon and my dad said that someone would try to steal it.

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In the blur of what I've backlogged, I still equate these things: wearing a pink cotton bra printed with small gray flowers, calling seventh grade boys on the telephone and learning what a party line connection was, shooting less on weekends, and talking to my dad less. He seemed more tired when he sat in the doorway to the garage and pulled off his muddy boots after work, his face redder, his hair thinner, his eyes less blue.

The day I got the copper-colored belt buckle, I think we both knew I'd never wear it, and that I'd never win another one, that other things would become and seem more important. I wonder if he saw the shooting as a way to communicate with me when he had that narrow opportunity, or if it was just a way to make a kid happy until she lost interest in spending time with her dad. I wonder if he'd predicted it.

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When twenty years have passed but you still hear ghost arrows rattling on your hip, the reverberation of string by your ear, and smell the sharp scent of sagebrush, you realize there are questions. So, you phone your dad, who is thousands of miles away, to say, "I don't remember the word for the little cow hide protector with the black rubber ring I wore on my finger, and what about the thing that strapped on my arm with elastic straps and metal hooks, or the place on the string where the arrow fit on…" And he'll answer, "Well, that's a finger tab, and that's an arm guard, and you must mean a nock set." You feel the need to ask why he doesn't shoot anymore, although you understand how interests shift, how league politics can create a

pressure that burdens any shooting joy, how there is a need to experience other things in life, like bass fishing. He'll say, "Man, kid, that was a long time ago. You were really little then." You'll nod your head and imagine his smile while he sits in his leather recliner in his air-conditioned bedroom, remembering how you both looked back then, with the matching blue nylon jackets and white arrowhead patches. You'll just hold there, breathing, until he brings up the range, or you do, that place you built to shoot.

The Ondine Prelude of Claude Debussy

Sarah Parsons

Music 261 – Private Piano Lessons/Piano
Dr. Timothy Smith, Professor

Claude-Achille Debussy was born on August 22, 1862 in France, the son of a modest businessman. He began piano lessons at the age of eight, and two years later was admitted into the Paris Conservatoire. He did well at this institution, particularly at harmony, solfege, and sight-reading but never won any significant awards for his piano playing. Because of this, he turned towards further study of harmony and composition.

Debussy experimented with tone color and harmony, developing a style all his own that would influence generations to come. Much of his music we now classify as Impressionism. The Impressionist painters of the day were more interested in creating a suggestion or a mood rather than giving an exact representation of what they saw. Their counterparts in the music world, such as Debussy, did the same thing with music. He used unconventional chord progressions and variety of tone color to create atmosphere and evoke an image. In this piece, the Ondine Prelude, he used swirling passages and a wide variety of pianistic techniques to portray the story of the water fairy, Ondine.

There are several variations on the tale of Ondine, but the general frame of the story is the same. She was a creature of the water who would lose her gift of everlasting life

if ever she would marry a mortal. Naturally, this very thing happened, and she left behind everything of her old life to wed the man she loved. Unfortunately, he eventually proved unfaithful and died under Ondine's curse of revenge.

Á l'aube du dernier jour
by Francis Kleynjans

Kiel Schweizer

Music 362 – Private Lessons/Guitar
Mr. Shawn Lyons, Instructor

Ten years ago, I first heard *Á l'aube du dernier jour* performed by Gerald Glickstein at a classical guitar master class in Moscow, Idaho. Glickstein gave a brief description of the piece saying that it told the story of a French prisoner and his final hours before execution. I remember closing my eyes and listening to the tick-tock in the opening movement and suddenly I could see this prisoner thrashing about in the sleepless night before the dawn. The ostenato throughout the second movement ties together the different emotional interludes that betray the frantic thoughts of the final hours of the condemned.

I never forgot this performance, but it was not until recently that I finally contacted Glickstein for the title and the name of the composer. The title translates to "The Dawn of the Last Day" and the French composer Francis Klyenjans composed it almost twenty years ago. Since then it has received some recognition in the academic community, but its popularity among players is not that great. It is technically challenging in places but the biggest hurdle to me was in conveying the emotion within the music. I began to view the piece as a kind of soundtrack to a film I would watch as I played. There are several distinguishing parts in this programmatic work that act

as tethers to the storyline. After the initial tick-tock, the second movement uses a combination of a bell tone achieved by crossing the fifth and sixth strings along with tapping sounds on the body of the guitar and a scraping noise along the metal strings in order to create a scene where the church bells toll and soon the guard comes down the hall and opens the squeaky cell door. Also, the final crack at the end of the song tells of the quick and final conclusion in the fall of the guillotine blade.

This is an exciting song to hear and perform. I would encourage everyone to listen to the wonderful recording by Roberto Aussel as well as all of the great works for guitar by Francis Klyenjans.

The Police Response to Sexual Assault: *A Literature Review*

Stephen J. Smith

Justice 697 – Graduate Independent Study
Dr. André Rosay, Assistant Professor

A literature review was performed to study the police response to sexual assault. It was shown that a central role of the police in the traditional/reactive theory of policing was to provide thorough criminal investigations to support the prosecution of perpetrators. Low reporting of sexual assault and perceived insensitivity of the police toward rape victims limited the effectiveness of this response. The advent of the community-oriented/proactive theory of policing brought alternative non-standard models of response to the fore. The Sexual Assault Response Team (SART) model provides a multidisciplinary response to sexual assault, consisting of a partnership of police, victim advocates, and sexual assault examiners. While incorporating some of the tenets of the community-oriented philosophy, SART can best be seen as an enhanced reactive response that better meets the needs of the victim and needs for effective prosecution. The most comprehensive plan for a community response to sexual assault was shown to exist in California, where the California Coalition Against Sexual Assault prepared *A Vision to End Sexual Assault*, involving all community stakeholders in both reacting to current victimization and preventing future victimization.

The Police Response to Sexual Assault: A Literature Review

The purpose of this paper is to review the available literature concerning the police response to sexual assault. The nature of this crime and the multidisciplinary response that has developed to combat it make it necessary to include elements of the criminal justice, legal, psychological, and medical literature to properly address the subject. A primary focus of this review will be the effectiveness of the police response in light of alternative theories of policing, though the police response has become inextricably entwined in the current multidisciplinary effort. The study will conclude with a discussion of salient issues and recommendations for further research.

The Dilemma of Sexual Assault Challenges

The crime of sexual assault has proven to be a unique challenge for law enforcement over time. First, the nature of the crime itself is very personal, potentially making responders of any discipline awkward or uncomfortable when dealing with the sexual assault victim. Crowley (1999) observed that few medical situations are as emotionally charged as rape, presenting myriad physical and psychological wounds in the victim, which may manifest in various ways. Hazelwood and Burgess (2001) pioneered work in 1974, which developed over time to describe a "rape trauma syndrome." This consists of an acute phase and long-term reorganization process that occurs as a result of forcible rape or attempted rape, and is considered to be a stress reaction to a life-threatening situation.

Some theorists have identified the personal nature of sexual assault as the reason for the low incidence of sexual assault victims reporting to police. Rennison (2002) reported that only 36% of rapes, 34% of attempted rapes, and 26% of sexual assaults were reported to the police nationally in the

study period 1992-2000. The most common reason given by victims for not reporting was that it was a personal matter. Additionally, the closer the relationship between the victim and offender, the less likely the victim was to report to police. Greenfield (1997) reported that 75.6% of rapes and sexual assaults nationally were perpetrated by subjects who had a prior relationship with the victim. Thus, it seems that victims are very reluctant to report to police in the vast majority of sexual victimizations. Obviously, this makes it difficult for the police to assess the problem of sexual assault accurately and implement effective measures to combat it.

Other theorists have posited that the traditional police response to sexual assault has been a major contributor to the problem of low reporting and progress in the field. Vito, Longmire, and Kenney (1983) echoed a body of studies from the mid to late 1970s that suggested the police investigation and prosecution of rape cases "twice traumatized" the victim, possibly contributing to low reporting. The authors called for greater sensitivity to the needs of victims, better officer training, and the development of non-traditional strategies when dealing with rape. One program the authors studied was an early effort toward a rudimentary multidisciplinary approach to sexual assault response. Other movements in society hastened the pace of reforms in the police response. One important one, though beyond the scope of this study, was the victims' rights movement. The influence of victims' rights advocates and organizations can clearly be seen in the contemporary multidisciplinary response to sexual assault.

Framework and Definitions

A few points must be established to serve as a foundation for this study. First, for the purposes of this study, "sexual assault" and "rape" will be considered synonymous and

defined in the most general terms, to encompass all degrees of sexual assault as defined by Alaska Statutes (see Appendix A). Federal reporting definitions of these crimes are more restrictive. The U.S. Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS) defines rape as "forced sexual intercourse, including both psychological coercion and physical force. Forced sexual intercourse means vaginal, anal, or oral penetration by the offender(s)" (Rennison & Welchans, 2000, p. 9). The BJS defines sexual assault as covering "a wide range of victimizations, distinct from rape or attempted rape. These crimes include completed or attempted attacks generally involving unwanted sexual contact between the victim and offender" (ibid.). Thus, the federal definition requires forced penetration to be a rape; lesser sexual crimes are sexual assaults. The literature generally views rape and sexual assault as being synonymous, with the broader term "sexual assault" coming into more widespread use among professional responders and caregivers today. This review will comport with that trend. Underage sexual assault victims (ages 12 to 18) will be considered in the context of that crime, rather than sexual abuse of a minor.

Second, while there are many theories and models of policing, this study will narrow its consideration to the two main schools of policing: the traditional/reactive model, and the community-oriented/proactive model. This will keep the scope of the study manageable and represent the two primary schools of modern policing. In short, the traditional/reactive model focuses on a rapid police response to crime and follow-up investigations to control and solve crime, while the community-oriented/proactive model favors cooperative partnerships between the police and citizens to jointly solve problems before they turn into crime.

Finally, numerous measures and standards of effectiveness could be used when studying the police response to sex-

ual assault. The number of arrests or case clearance rate are common measures of police activity. The conviction rate or per capita incidence of sexual assault are metrics that might better reflect the effectiveness of the entire criminal justice system, rather than attempting to isolate the police from its parent criminal justice system. Viewed from another perspective, levels of victim satisfaction with their treatment during the investigation or levels of victim reporting to police might be more progressive measures of police effectiveness in sexual assault response. This perspective raises the counterintuitive possibility that higher levels of victim reporting suggest greater police effectiveness, though raising the apparent incidence of sexual assault.

The point is clear that measuring police effectiveness in sexual assault response is a complicated matter. The available evaluations approach the matter through various means, with little consistency in measures among them. Thus, the evaluation sections will review the extant literature on sexual assault response effectiveness as it currently exists, dispersed among various disciplines and utilizing different measures and approaches.

Sexual Assault and Theories of Policing

A Brief History of American Policing

Researchers of American policing have broken down its history into three primary eras, during which various theories and models of policing developed (Fyfe, Greene, Walsh, Wilson, & McLaren, 1997). American law enforcement has its roots in the service of pre-Revolutionary rural county sheriffs and urban constabulary and watch systems, based on the British system the colonists knew in Europe. The larger urban centers in America first created police forces in the mid 1800s, when local political authorities themselves were evolving. As a result, early American law enforcement was mired in political interfer-

ence and corruption. This "Political Era" gave way to the "Reform Era" in the early 1900s. This is when the bureaucratic-efficiency model emerged, which was grounded in the principles of scientific management and military command. A rational-legal form of police professionalism slowly came to dominate policing in the country in this era, and its focus became crime control and crime solving. What this study will call the traditional/reactive theory of policing emerged in this period.

The Reform Era and police professionalism helped limit political interference and corruption in policing, and it gave rise to the scholarly study of policing; but it created a distance between the police and the citizens they served. The crime control approach of traditional/reactive policing focused more on the crime and catching the perpetrator than the needs of the victim. The desire for a closer relationship between the police and citizenry, without the corruption of the Political Era, gave rise to the Community Era starting in the 1980s. This era was distinguished by different organizational and service delivery approaches designed to create a stronger relationship between the public and the police, and to proactively address problems before they turned into crime.

The evolution of American policing, outlined here in its simplest form, played out against a backdrop of tremendous social change in America. The so-called "due process revolution" of landmark civil rights cases in the 1960s and the more recent victims' rights movement fundamentally shaped the operations and approach of American law enforcement. How the police responded to sexual assault was also necessarily shaped by this evolution.

Sexual Assault in Traditional/Reactive Policing

Sheehan and Cordner (1995) identified the three cornerstones of traditional police strategy as being routine

patrol, immediate response to calls, and follow-up investigations. Primarily a reactive posture, this strategy assumes that "police omnipresence" from random patrols will suppress crime, and rapid response and follow-up investigations will control and solve crime. The strategy created a workflow or process wherein a uniformed patrol officer responded forthwith to reports of crime and performed an initial investigation. The patrol officer then called a detective to assist in certain cases requiring additional investigation to solve them. The process necessarily left room for officer and detective discretion to guide decisions in case merit and development. This discretion was often guided by officer attitudes and values.

As noted previously, the Reform Era of policing saw the scholarly study of the profession increase. Fyfe et al. (1997), and Swanson, Territo, and Taylor (2001) identified certain landmark studies that brought the effectiveness of the traditional policing strategy into question. Specifically, the Kansas City Preventative Patrol Experiment published in 1974 found that routine, preventative motorized patrol had no statistically significant effects on crime or citizen fear of crime. A separate study in Kansas City focusing on the effects of varied response times to crime found that rapid response to calls has no effect on the arrest of criminals or on the satisfaction of involved citizens, who often delay in calling the police after a crime has occurred. Additionally, the 1975 Rand Corporation study of criminal investigation found that the information most needed to solve a case was usually gleaned in the initial investigation, and that detectives usually worked backwards from a known suspect to corroborating evidence.

The potential deficiencies of this strategy in responding to sexual assault are clear. First, routine patrol likely does not suppress sexual assault. The crime prevention benefit of a limited number of marked patrol units or foot beat and bicycle

officers performing routine patrol is minimal, and the chance that they would consistently be in the right place at the right time to deter sexual predators is slim. Second, a rapid response to reports of sexual assault does not alone alter levels or fear of the crime, nor enhance victim satisfaction with the response. Indeed, current studies already cited showed that the vast majority of sexual assaults go unreported to police in the first place, further negating the effectiveness of the traditional model. Additionally, the underlying focus on crime control and crime solving in the traditional model emphasized facts and decisions of the legal process, and de-emphasized other factors such as the emotional needs of the victims.

As noted previously, this phenomenon led Vito, Longmire, and Kenney (1983) to call for a police approach sensitive to the needs of the victim, as they found victims who were supported provided better statements and testimony in court. They concluded that proper treatment of the rape victim better supported the crime control function of the criminal justice system, in that it increased conviction rates for the crime. The program they studied that resulted in the higher conviction rate employed a rape victim specialist providing victim support, officer training, and public education. The victim support resulted in better victim testimony, the officer training sought to enhance police receptivity to the rape victim, and the public education taught citizens how to avoid sexual victimization.

Vito, Longmire, and Kenney were not alone in their position. Various researchers over time have posited that the deficiency of the traditional response to sexual assault lay not with the model itself, but with the officers' attitude toward the crime and its victims. The officers' unreceptive attitude, the theorist thought, discouraged victims from reporting their rapes and guided officer decision-making prejudicially in investigating and processing rape cases. This approach, and that of other

criminal justice system personnel, was thought to be the cause for the high rate of attrition in rape cases. This makes the issues of officer attitudes, their receptivity toward rape victims, and their decision-making in rape investigations central to the overall question of police effectiveness in sexual assault response. The matter has received some attention in the literature, and is considered here.

Officer Attitudes and Behavior Toward Sexual Assault

Various researchers have noted a dearth of studies regarding police attitudes and behavior in general, let alone those specific to sexual assault. Nonetheless, a small body of literature on the subject exists, though it has not arrived at unanimous conclusions.

LeDoux and Hazelwood (1985) drew a useful distinction when they observed a difference between *anecdotal literature* and *empirical research* (italics in original). They found that anecdotal literature typified the treatment of rape victims by police as hostile, callous, and indifferent. That literature, based on individual fact circumstances, tended to focus on worst-case scenarios and generalized them to the wider experience of rape victims. They found that the empirical literature presented a more balanced view, creating some support for the notion that some officers are influenced by the particular circumstances of some cases, but also contradicting the general stereotypes of the anecdotal literature.

Feild (1978) performed an oft-cited comparative analysis of the attitudes of police, rapists, crisis counselors, and citizens toward rape, in which he collected data from 1448 subjects using an "Attitudes Toward Rape" instrument that he designed for the study. Of the total sample, 254 of the subjects were police officers. Feild found that crisis counselors differed most from the other groups studied in their attitudes towards

rape, and that citizens tended to be more similar to the police and rapists in their attitudes than to the counselors. Specific to police, Feild noted that no empirical evidence was available to state that police officers often treat the victim as the offender. However, when he compared police officers' attitudes toward rape with those of the rapists and counselors, Feild found the police corresponded more closely with the rapists than the counselors, but most closely to the general population of citizens. Citizens and police attached more of a negative stigma to the rape victim, and attributed a greater responsibility to women for rape prevention than did the counselors. He drew on the work of other scholars to posit reasons for the police attitudes. One scholar ventured that the police often see a rape situation from the offender's viewpoint rather than the victim's. Another blamed the officers' male-oriented attitudes for their attitudes toward rape. Still another identified the training police received as predisposing them toward doubting the victim, while scrutinizing the facts and merits of a given case. Regarding police training on rape, Feild cited Chappell in noting that 93% of 208 departments surveyed provided training on special evidence requirements in rape cases, but only 38% provided training which covered rape as a social problem. Feild concluded that his data did not substantiate police insensitivity toward rape victims, but did suggest a need for a systematic evaluation of police officer attitudes toward rape and their behavior toward rape victims.

Feldman-Summers and Palmer (1980) studied a small group of criminal justice system personnel (N = 54) in the Seattle, Washington area and compared their view of rape to that of rape center staff members (N = 29) in the same area. The researchers also found that beliefs about the cause and prevention of rape differed between the criminal justice and social service personnel. For example, they found that social service

personnel believed the frequency of rape could best be reduced by changing social norms, while criminal justice personnel favored changing the behavior of the victims. Specific to police, Feldman-Summers and Palmer found that only 36% of officers saw the rapes reported to them as "true rapes" with the assailant correctly identified. The researchers considered this finding to account for the frequent claim by rape victims that they were not believed when reporting their assault to police. Feldman-Summers and Palmer recommended education and training for criminal justice personnel to change beliefs leading them to blame or doubt rape victims, and they recommended selection of personnel for positions of authority who held non-stereotypical beliefs about rape and rape victims. Unfortunately, the small overall criminal justice sample (N = 54) and subsample of police officers (N = 15) limited the power of the study, and made it impossible to generalize the findings beyond the region in which it was performed.

Not all studies in the literature are as critical of the police. LeDoux and Hazelwood (1985) performed a study that administered a questionnaire based on Feild's Attitude Toward Rape instrument to a stratified random sample of 2170 county and municipal officers from around the country. They found that officers were not typically insensitive to the plight of rape victims; however, they were suspicious of victims who had previous willing sex with their assailant or who are thought to "provoke" rape through their appearance and behavior. They did find a small subset of officers who exhibited a prejudiced attitude against the rape victim, and suggested that police supervisors be aware of such attitudes in their personnel and keep those officers away from rape investigations. Additionally, the researchers found that officers strongly viewed rape as a serious crime that deserves severe punishment, rather than considering it frivolous. LeDoux and Hazelwood offered their study as a

refinement to Feild's work, and they noted the statistical strength of their study over others with significantly smaller sample sets. They did add that their study did not address the impact of training on police attitudes toward rape, or the relationship between attitude and behavior.

Various studies from the criminal justice and legal literature analyzed the decision-making of criminal justice personnel in handling sexual assault cases. The studies revealed decision-making in criminal investigation and prosecution as multi-faceted and complex.

LaFree (1981) identified the police as the most important processing agents in sexual assault cases, as they are usually the first contact the victim has with the criminal justice system. He studied police decision-making in 905 sexual assault investigations in the Indianapolis Police Department in 1970, 1973, and 1975, including various criteria for decision-making that department personnel used in the investigations. LaFree found that the legal model best described the official police reaction to sexual assault. He described the legal model as suggesting that police do not discriminate between victims on the basis of extralegal attributes, such as the victim's race, location of incident, victim resistance and injury, and witnesses. These he found had no effect on police decisions; rather, legally relevant variables were most important in all cases. These variables included the basic elements of the crime, suspect's use of a weapon, victim's ability to identify a suspect, and willingness to prosecute. He also found that the establishment of a detective unit specific to sex offenses did not change decision-making or rates of arrest for rape. LaFree later published (1989) a more complete work on the social construction of rape in the criminal justice system. He elaborated on the 1981 study in the later work's chapter on police, and he identified the variables having major effects on police decisions as the type of offense, presence

of a weapon, and statutory seriousness. Other important variables were the identification of a suspect and willingness of the victim to testify. He also noted that the police decision-making process took place in a context of scarce resources, which had some impact on the selection of cases pursued beyond initial investigation.

Potts (1983) was similarly less critical of the police when he studied police decision-making in rape prosecution. Potts conceived of rape prosecution as following a "nearly-decomposable linear decision model" that constrained decision-makers, as he studied the role of victims, police, and prosecutors in making decisions to prosecute. He posited that the process is comprised of a series of discrete decisions, which are based on issues of immediate concern and not on expectations of decisions by other actors later in the process. Thus, he argued that police decisions to arrest were not based on the likelihood that prosecutors would later pursue the charges. Potts contended that police attitudes and behavior did not discourage victims from reporting, citing anecdotal studies of rape victims who were satisfied with their treatment by the police. He predicted that efforts to reform the police response or rape law would not markedly effect rates of rape reporting or conviction.

Kerstetter (1990) also supported a legal model in the police and prosecutorial response to sexual assault in a study of data from the Chicago Police Department. He studied all founded rape cases from 1979 (N = 1530) and a one-quarter random sample of all sexual assault complaints to the department in 1981 (N = 671) in studying the police response to the crime. Significantly, Kerstetter discriminated between cases of stranger ("identity") versus acquaintance ("consent") rape. The study found that in both identity and consent cases, evidentiary and instrumental variables constituted the majority of statistically significant variables, and were significant in every

decision. Evidentiary variables included the presence of admissible testimonial, documentary, or physical evidence establishing the elements of the offense. Instrumental variables were related to but not synonymous with evidentiary variables, and included the apprehension of the accused and the victim's decision to press charges. This led Kerstetter to conclude that evidentiary and instrumental variables primarily structured official decision-making in the processing of sexual assault complaints in Chicago.

Another study tracking the processing of sexual assault cases by the criminal justice system (Frazier & Haney, 1996) examined all rape cases reported to an unnamed midwestern metropolitan police department in 1991 (N = 861). The study sought to gather data on the attrition of cases in the system, and to identify factors associated with police and prosecutor decision-making. The study found that substantial attrition of cases does take place during the processing of cases by the criminal justice system, but at rates similar to those observed in the 1970s. Unwillingness of the victim to prosecute was the most common reason noted in the police records for suspects not being questioned or referred to the prosecuting attorney. More severe assaults were prosecuted more vigorously; and overall, rape cases were treated similarly to other serious crimes. The study also found that victims were generally satisfied with the police, though less so with the legal system in general. The study did not support the belief that victims suffered a "secondary victimization" by the criminal justice system, in that there was no relationship between the victims' level of satisfaction with the system and their case outcomes or their recovery.

A final minor study worthy of note (Campbell, 1995) surveyed police officers from two police departments in the Midwest (N = 91) on their perceptions of date rape. The study sought to assess the influence of the officers' work experience

and general beliefs about women on their perceptions of date rape. The study found that officers with more experience with rape cases held more sympathetic beliefs about date rape and its victims. Additionally, Campbell found that officers who considered their training for rape cases to be very helpful were less likely to blame the victim in date rapes, as were officers who reported having encountered sexual harassment in their work environment. The study found that the same officers who held the more sympathetic views toward rape victims held more favorable attitudes toward women in general. Campbell considered sensitive treatment by the police toward date rape victims to be critical to increasing reporting rates. She joined with many other researchers in positing that training for officers on sexual assault response was important to shaping officers' attitudes and behaviors in a manner consistent with an effective police response to the crime. A few studies specifically addressed this issue.

Police Training in Sexual Assault Response

The studies reviewed thus far revealed training as an important issue in the police response to sexual assault. Specifically, Vito, Longmire, and Kenney (1983) identified the officer training sessions provided by the rape victim specialist in their study as being valuable to the officers' effectiveness. Campbell (1995) found that department training on rape was second only to greater experience with rape cases in creating more sympathetic beliefs in officers toward date rape victims. Feldman-Summers and Palmer (1980) called for appropriate education and training for all criminal justice system personnel to alter beliefs leading to victim blaming or doubting. Only Feild (1978) suggested that officers' training might predispose them toward doubting the testimony of the victim, but that was an aside based on Symonds' earlier work (1975). It may also more

reflect the state of police training in the mid-1970s. In reexamining Feild's findings in a separate study, LeDoux and Hazelwood (1985) omitted police training, but specifically noted that the impact of training on police attitudes toward rape was worthy of study.

Gottesman, in fact, published a study of police attitudes toward rape before and after a training program in 1977, albeit with a small sample size. She studied the attitudes toward rape and rape victims of 21 police officers from two police departments in a large midwestern city. She interviewed the officers before and after they attended a training session prepared for the study by the area rape crisis center. Gottesman's exit interviews with the officers revealed they had an increased recognition of the nature of victim rape trauma, greater awareness of their personal feelings about rape and the potential effects of their feelings on the victim, and an increase in knowledge about hospital and legal procedures. The only attitude Gottesman found unchanged was the officers' belief that rape victims share in the responsibility for the crime because of their dress or behavior. Additionally, she found the officers felt positively about the training and stated a need for further training in dealing with rape victims. Gottesman acknowledged the statistical limitations of her study, but stated her findings suggested that with proper training, police officers could function as crisis intervention agents in cases of rape.

Lonsway, Welch, and Fitzgerald recently (2001) performed a far more rigorous study of police training for sexual assault response. They evaluated an experimental training program on sexual assault investigation at an Illinois police academy. Using a quasi-experimental design, the researchers performed two studies ($N = 161$ and $N = 447$ respectively) in different sessions of the academy. The training consisted of lecture and discussion about sexual assault legal issues, sexual assault

dynamics, community attitudes, the team approach to sexual assault response, and preliminary investigations of the crime. The academy recruits then received lecture and had discussions on rape trauma syndrome before conducting a mock interview with a role player as a sexual assault victim. The researchers found that the experimental group of recruits exhibited no change in cognitive or attitudinal variables, however, they outperformed the control group during the simulated sexual assault interview. Lonsway, Welch, and Fitzgerald considered their findings to be a powerful argument for the use of behavioral simulations in law enforcement training, and for the development of evaluation instruments superior to the traditional paper-and-pencil tests commonly used in law enforcement training. They focused on the adult learning issues in their study, rather than analyzing the lack of change in the recruits' attitudes toward rape after the training. It leads one to speculate if a training program a few hours in duration is sufficient to alter attitudes in adults that were developed over a lifetime; however, Lonsway, Welch, and Fitzgerald did not speak to that issue.

Taken in total, it appears that training in sexual assault response can at least change officers' behaviors in performing these duties, although it is less clear that the training is useful in shaping officers' attitudes. Still, it is reasonable to conclude that comprehensive training in sexual assault response is valuable and should be provided to officers before performing these duties for maximum effectiveness. Training materials on sexual assault response are now widely available. A brief search of open-source materials revealed current training guides from the U.S. Office for Victims of Crime (*First Response to Victims of Crime*, 2000, which includes a section on victims of sexual assault; and *Victim-Oriented Multidisciplinary Responses to Statutory Rape*, 2000), and an extensive on-line training

curriculum, *Police Response to Crimes of Sexual Assault*, by Hunter, Cewe, and Mills (1997) of the Connecticut Sexual Assault Crisis Services, Inc. There is clearly no lack of information or training material currently available on the police response to sexual assault.

Evaluations of the Police Response

The largest body of studies available on the police response to sexual assault focused on officer attitudes and decision-making in handling cases, covered above. As noted in that section, these issues are central to the police response and do directly impact police effectiveness. The studies reviewed as a whole suggest that police tend to ascribe more responsibility to the rape victim than others in the multidisciplinary response. The police were shown to operate according to a legal model, being primarily concerned with establishing the elements of the crime and preparing a case for prosecution that will withstand scrutiny in court. As such, it is easy to see how police skepticism and diligence in confirming the details of a case could be perceived as doubt and lack of support by victims. Still, studies showed that police were not insensitive to the plight of rape victims, and that their attitudes could be shaped somewhat by training on sexual assault response. The officers' behaviors in responding to sexual assault were shown to be much improved by specific pre-response training. Two additional studies highlight the performance of police toward rape victims, and in the legal processing of sexual assault cases.

Wirtz and Harrell (1985) interviewed 150 recent victims of various physical assaults in Pima County, Arizona to assess their experiences with the police during their incident. The victims, 85% of whom were female, were broken down into three groups: those who were victims of rape (29% of sample), domestic physical assault (37%), and non-domestic physical

assault (34%). The study showed that the police took time to listen to the victim's story 86% of the time in rape cases, slightly more than in the other crimes; and they helped the victim in some way in 77% of rape cases, also slightly higher than in cases of physical assault alone. The police were shown to be far more responsive to rape victims than physical assault victims in terms of showing interest in the victim's feelings and concerns (64%), contacting the victim after initial contact (82%), and mentioning a services contact person or group to the victim (84%). The fact that the police were higher in all categories of response to rape victims led the researchers to conclude that the police might be neglecting the needs of physical assault victims, particularly in non-domestic situations. Thus, this study suggested that officers in Pima County were responsive to rape victims, even in 1985.

Du Mont (2000) underscored the working of the legal model, albeit in the Canadian criminal justice system, in studying the hospital and legal records of 187 women who reported a rape to a sexual assault treatment center and police in a large Canadian city in 1994. She found that two client-related characteristics (older age and lack of resistance) were related to greater attrition of cases, however, numerous other victim characteristics were not. These included the victim's race, living arrangement, employment status, physical/sexual abuse and mental health histories, substance use at the time of the crime, and delayed reporting of the crime. Further, cases involving women who had been assaulted by an acquaintance were more likely to result in a charge. Du Mont found that the evidentiary factors of witness corroboration and the suspect's use of physical force played a pivotal role in charging and prosecution, respectively. This led the researcher to observe that while some criminal justice system members might still hold prejudicial attitudes toward rape victims, the system appeared

to be prosecuting sexual assault suspects regardless of victim characteristics more effectively than in previous times, though the attrition rate suggested more progress was warranted.

In sum, the issues of police attitudes toward sexual assault and training to respond to it are not as neatly isolated within the various theories of policing as this review might imply. Clearly, police attitudes may influence police behavior and decision-making whether they are operating within a traditional/reactive theory or community/proactive theory of policing. Also, police training reasonably has some power to impact the police response in either system. The studies reviewed thus far span a time period covering from when the traditional model dominated the profession to the more recent popularization of community-oriented policing. Further complicating the study is the fact that many departments have been unable or unwilling for various reasons to transition to community policing, including some departments that claim to have transitioned for political or public relations reasons but in actuality did not. Nevertheless, the next section will explore the tenets of community-oriented policing, and a multidisciplinary model of sexual assault response that developed roughly simultaneously with community-oriented policing.

Sexual Assault in Community-Oriented/Proactive Policing

Oliver (2001) noted that there is no common definition of community-oriented policing (COP) shared by law enforcement theorists and practitioners. He and other scholars (Miller & Hess, 1994) agreed that community policing is a philosophy, rather than a clearly defined set of strategies, tactics, or programs. Miller and Hess added that the philosophy "emphasizes working proactively with citizens to solve crime-related problems and prevent crime" (p. 16). Some of the key themes inherent in COP identified by Oliver include instilling a sense of

community belonging and involvement into the police service district, problem solving in cooperative police-community partnerships, organizational decentralization, reducing the citizens' fear of crime, and the use of selected standard police tactics applied in a strategic manner to the specific problems of the community. As such, COP is a broad philosophy with plenty of stretch to play out differently in various communities nationwide. Oliver noted that community policing is also broad in that it encompasses the more narrow philosophies of strategic-oriented policing, neighborhood-oriented policing, and problem-oriented policing.

Given the challenges posed by sexual assault to law enforcement and the deficiencies of the traditional response to the crime, it is easy to see why the profession's evolution to the "Community Era" gave rise to alternative community responses to sexual assault. As noted earlier, Vito, Longmire, and Kenney called for greater sensitivity to the needs of victims, better officer training, and the development of non-traditional strategies when dealing with rape in 1983. The program those researchers studied was an early effort toward a rudimentary multidisciplinary approach to sexual assault response, the use of a rape victim specialist acting cooperatively with the police. The current state-of-the-art community response to sexual assault began to form near the beginning of the Community Era of policing, with the advent of Sexual Assault Nurse Examiner (SANE) programs and Sexual Assault Response Teams (SART).

SANE/SART Model

The limitations of traditional policing in responding to sexual assault were covered above. Ahrens, Campbell, Wasco, Aponte, Grubstein, and Davidson (2000) identified the limitations that the traditional hospital emergency department had in treating sexual assault victims prior to the development of

sexual assault nurse examiner programs. These limitations included long waits due to their low priority in triage, cursory exams by hurried physicians, lack of training for emergency department staff in dealing with sexual assault, and billing of fees directly to the victim. These deficiencies gave rise to an effort to provide better medical services to sexual assault victims. Voelker (1996) told the story of an older woman from a prominent San Diego county family who was raped in 1989, and received poor medical treatment in the aftermath of her assault. The media attention the case drew gave rise to the formation of San Diego's SART program in 1990. Ledray (1999) identified the first SANE programs as developing in Memphis, Tennessee in 1976; Minneapolis, Minnesota in 1977; and Amarillo, Texas in 1979. The model spread slowly throughout the United States, with 10 additional programs developing in the 1980s, followed by 73 more from 1990 to 1996 (Ledray, 1999). Currently there are 330 functioning SANE programs nationwide (International Association of Forensic Nurses, 2002).

Little (2001) defined a sexual assault nurse examiner as "a registered nurse who has advanced education and clinical preparation in forensic examination of sexual assault victims" (p. 1). Little described the duties of a SANE. In a SANE examination, the SANE performs the physical exam of the victim, which is tailored to the injuries incurred in a sexual assault. The SANE also collects and preserves all evidence from the examination and documents it. The SANE can collect samples of the victim's blood and urine in cases of suspected drug-facilitated sexual assault, and can treat minor injuries the victim may have sustained in the assault. A physician at an appropriate facility would still treat any serious physical trauma the victim sustained. The SANE also assesses the victim's psychological state and orientation, being especially alert for suicidal ideation,

and can provide the victim with prophylaxis for sexually transmitted diseases or referrals for medical or psychological care and support (Little, 2001).

Ahrens et al. (2000) and Selig (2000) identified the benefits of the SANE examination for both the victim and involved agencies. They first noted that SANEs are on call 24 hours a day, and victims experience less waiting time when examined by a SANE. The SANE exam provides a more private setting and usually a female examiner, which generally puts the victim more at ease. The SANEs themselves have extensive training and perform many examinations annually, so they stay proficient. This results in better care for the victim and better collection and handling of evidence. The researchers found that SANEs coordinate community resources better, thus delivering comprehensive services to the victims. Finally, SANE program services are usually provided free of charge to the victim, based on the belief that the victims should not have to pay for evidence collection. The benefits listed by Ahrens et al. and Selig suggest that the SANE response to sexual assault should deliver better investigations resulting in higher rates of conviction, and better victim support resulting in enhanced victim recovery. Vito, Longmire, and Kenney observed improved victim testimony and conviction rates based on the addition of a rape victim specialist alone to the investigation, without a specialized physical exam. A review of existing SANE/SART program evaluations follows later in this study.

The multi-faceted and still evolving role of the sexual assault nurse examiner caused Ledray, Faugno, and Speck (2001) to consider whether their role has become more advocate, forensic technician, or nurse. Their conclusion was that, by definition and training, the SANE is a nurse with a special emphasis on forensic examination. Historically, nursing has had a strong component of advocacy manifested in patient support.

The authors affirmed the holistic nature of the SANEs' work in treating rape victims; however, they recommended dropping the term "advocate" from their description of duties, in that it can cause confusion with the duties of the representative of the rape crisis center in the overall SART response. That fully developed multidisciplinary approach has become the state-of-the-art community response to rape.

Ledray (1999) identified the first sexual assault response team model involving a coordinated response as developing in California. Voelker (1996) credited San Luis Obispo, CA with the oldest SART, having started in 1978. The International Association of Forensic Nurses (2002) estimated there are approximately 800 SART programs in the United States and Canada, 330 of which have functioning SANE components. Thus, the ideal circumstance is to have all components of a team available and functioning together, but not all currently do.

Ledray included SANEs, police officers, detectives, prosecutors, rape crisis advocates or counselors, and emergency department personnel as typical SART members, though again, not all teams have members from every group. Wilson (2002) described the typical SART response to a sexual assault as consisting of a victim advocate, a police officer, and a sexual assault examiner. He described the team's coordinated effort in conducting a sensitive, thorough investigation. "The advocate provides support to the victim and sets the stage for continued services. The police officer investigates the facts of the case and takes appropriate action. The examiner assesses, documents, and collects forensic evidence and reports obvious pathology or suspicious findings to the victim with a suggestion for follow-up care or referral" (p. 14).

The SART and COP models emerged during the same period of time, in the late 1970s to early 1980s. This was a time

of evolving sensitivity to the needs of citizens in general and crime victims in particular in American society. The SART model comports with some of the philosophy and themes of community-oriented policing as covered above, but not all of them. SART consists of a partnership of disciplines designed to be more attentive to the needs of victims, and more effective in investigating and prosecuting a particularly heinous crime. From the police perspective, the SART model makes selected use of standard police procedures (i.e. interviewing and evidence collection) incorporated in a non-standard strategic response to the crime and social problem of sexual assault. The SART model is, however, primarily reactive in nature; a sexual assault victim generally must come forward to report a victimization for SART to mobilize. While the reporting level of sexual assault is still problematic (Rennison, 2002), it is possible that as the more victim-sensitive response to sexual assault becomes institutionalized in American communities, reporting levels will rise. This would be consistent with the position of some theorists, who have blamed low reporting levels for rape on the insensitive treatment of victims by criminal justice system personnel, though it would be contrary to Potts (1983). Also, SART for the most part puts citizens in the more passive role of service recipients in the sexual assault issue, rather than in the more active problem-solving role preferred by community policing. Some proactivity in the SART model can be seen in the public and officer education efforts of rape crisis advocates, and the crime prevention efforts of law enforcement, though these efforts are primarily made by the member agencies alone and not as part of the SART function. Still, the success of the SART model caused the Office of Justice Programs to include the Tulsa, Oklahoma SART program in its 2001 report on promising criminal justice and health partnerships, *Converging Concerns*.

In sum, the SART model can most accurately be described as an enhanced reactive response to sexual assault, designed to support rape victims holistically while providing better criminal investigation and prosecution. The model's multidisciplinary partnership gives it some of the attributes of the COP philosophy, but it lacks the proactivity and problem solving to rightly be classified in the COP/proactive model. Nonetheless, it is the cutting-edge police response to sexual assault.

Two documents highlight the cooperative nature of the modern response to sexual assault. Epstein and Langenbahn (1994) writing for the National Institute of Justice released a report, *The Criminal Justice and Community Response to Rape*, detailing the subject. They performed a literature review and study of four "best practice" programs from around the country in arriving at their findings and recommendations. The authors observed that victims are best served when rape crisis centers, law enforcement agencies, prosecutors' offices, and hospitals work cooperatively in formal networks. Regarding organizational changes, the authors recommended that police agencies and prosecutors' offices hire in-house victim/witness advocates; criminal justice organizations and hospitals adopt sensitivity training for their personnel; partnership members develop cross training and mechanisms for interagency cooperation; and partnership members sponsor outreach programs designed to draw more minority victims to use the available services. Regarding procedural changes, the authors recommended the promotion of DNA typing as a tool in rape investigation; allowing third-party reporting of rapes from the advocacy organization partners to the law enforcement organization partners; and the protection of victims' privacy to encourage increased reporting of rape. The authors also encouraged increased civic education on sexual assault issues and prevention. Specific to law enforcement

organizations, Epstein and Langenbahn recommended the development of specialized sex crimes units, as well as the use of in-house victim/witness advocates. Specific to law enforcement procedures, the authors recommended more sensitive approaches to interviewing victims; more flexible criminal reporting procedures; and methods to protect the victims' privacy. The report also identified the need for law enforcement agencies to conduct comprehensive training on sexual assault issues at the academy and in-service levels, and to seek specialized training on the topic from sources outside the department.

The California Coalition Against Sexual Assault (CALCASA) released its strategic forum report, *A Vision to End Sexual Assault*, in 2001. The comprehensive report was prepared by a partnership with representatives from rape crisis centers, criminal justice agencies, multidisciplinary stakeholders, and the CALCASA Strategic Forum Working Group. The report focused on six key issues and posited recommendations and strategies to address them. The six issues were: change public perceptions of rape and sexual violence; ensure multidisciplinary services to facilitate healing from sexual violence; overcome barriers to prevention, intervention, and treatment for underserved populations; involve men and boys in prevention of rape and sexual violence; ensure responsive, effective criminal justice practices; and promote sexual assault prevention education (p. 5). The report identified five recommendations specific to effective criminal justice practices (with supporting strategies too numerous to list here). The five recommendation for criminal justice were: support adoption of a victim-centered philosophy throughout the criminal justice process; improve the criminal justice system's capacity to identify and prosecute sex offenders; enhance training for all professionals working in the criminal justice system; improve procedures to monitor and improve offender accountability; and

decrease the number of sexual assaults by and against people who are incarcerated in prison or in jail. The CALCASA strategic report outlines a comprehensive community-based effort to interdict sex offenses that are currently occurring and prevent future victimizations through a long-range plan, broader than the scope of the SART model. This broader vision is more completely in harmony with the philosophy of the community-oriented/proactive theory of policing. It positions law enforcement in an integral, cooperative role in a coordinated, multidisciplinary community partnership focused on solving both the narrower crime problem of sexual assault and the larger social problem of sexual assault.

Evaluations of the Enhanced Sexual Assault Response

The introduction to this review noted that measuring police effectiveness in sexual assault response is a complicated matter. The challenge has become even greater with the advent of the SART model, in that the police constitute only one portion of an integrated effort. Isolating the effectiveness of any one of the interconnected components of the model can be misleading, in that the effectiveness of the overall multidisciplinary response is the paramount matter.

There were no comparative studies available in the literature that evaluated the effectiveness of the response to sexual assault in an area before and after the implementation of a SART program. This is a topic ripe for study. The following reviews the available studies. These are varied, making use of myriad measures to study different aspects of the response to sexual assault. The richest contemporary literature available comes from the medical community, and derives from its effort to evaluate the SANE response, as that specialty evolves and generates a body of work sufficient to study.

Evaluations of the SANE Response

Extant evaluations of SANE programs vary in their breadth and depth, with some focusing on overall program activity and others on specific effects of these programs.

Stermac and Stirpe (2002) compared the efficacy of a Toronto SANE program's services to those provided by physician examiners in the same hospital. They obtained data from the hospital records of 515 women who had been seen in the hospital's sexual assault care center. The most significant finding from the study was that, while the treatment the two groups provided was similar, the SANEs provided treatment more efficiently (3.25 hour average per examination versus 4 hours for physicians), and after a shorter waiting period prior to treatment. Additionally, the SANEs were interrupted less often during treatment than were the physicians (20% of the time versus 25.1%), which would be consistent with the longer treatment period for physicians. The study also noted that physicians saw cases with more serious trauma, which would take more time. Otherwise, the SANEs were found to provide similar treatment as the physicians, and to a similar client pool demographically, with similar satisfactory results. This implies an efficiency for the institution provided by SANEs, in that they are less expensive than physicians and their services free the doctors for other duties.

Enhanced evidence collection was one benefit of SANE programs identified previously. This function has probably received more attention in the literature than SANE's other functions, as it applies directly to the important and more easily measured variable of case prosecution. Selig (2000) applied the Center for Advanced Nursing Practice's Evidence-Based Practice Model to a SANE/SART program. The model flows through a series of evidence-based stages: evidence-triggered, evidence-supported, evidence-observed, and evidence-

based. Selig applied a descriptive analysis of the model in assessing the development of a particular SANE program. She found that the development of the SANE/SART program fit the evidence-based model. The evidence-triggered stage was reflected by SANE/SART program's initiation due to gaps in community service initiatives for women, deficiencies in the traditional practice patterns for sexual assault, and consumer interest. The evidence-supported stage involved adapting national standards and practice guidelines, and expert opinion supporting SANE/SART operations. The evidence-observed stage entailed a SANE/SART program pilot study that was performed. Finally, the evidence-based stage was reflected by improved outcomes from the SANE/SART program, including its standardized practice and expansion to rural communities. Selig considered the program to be effective according to the evidence-based model, as well as by bringing quality improvement to the entire women's health program at the parent facility.

SANE performance in evidence collection was studied in a Minnesota program by Ledray and Simmelink (1997). The researchers worked with the Minnesota Bureau of Criminal Apprehension to audit 97 rape kits sent to their laboratory for analysis. The audit focused on the completeness and documentation of the kits, as well as proper chain of evidence. These are critical issues for admissibility of the evidence in court. Of the 97 kits analyzed, 24 were completed by SANEs, 30 by physicians, 23 by a physician and non-SANE nurse, and 7 by a non-SANE nurse alone. The remaining 13 had such poor or missing identification and documentation that they were totally inadmissible in court. The audit revealed that proper chain of evidence was preserved in 100% of the SANE kits, but only 73% of the non-SANE kits. The SANE kits were found to contain a higher percentage of penetration site swabs (96%) than the non-SANE kits (85%), and blood for blood type

identification (100 % vs. 92 %). The SANE kits also included a far higher percentage of blood samples for alcohol and drug testing than the non-SANE kits (100 % vs. 15 %). The documentation of the SANE kits was also found to be superior to that in the non-SANE kits. The researchers concluded that SANEs will collect evidence better as a result of their experience and training.

Thus, SANEs were shown to be effective in collecting evidence subsequent to sexual assault, but what is the significance of that evidence to criminal prosecution? McGregor headed two studies which focused on this issue. In 1999 she published a study with Le, Marion, and Wiebe on the association between documentation of physical injury in sexual assault victims and the bringing of criminal charges. McGregor followed in 2002 with a more extensive study published with Du Mont and Myhr on the relationship between a SANE examination and successful prosecution. The 1999 retrospective cohort study reviewed the medical and legal records for all cases seen by the British Columbia Women's Sexual Assault Service in 1992 for which a police report had been filed (N = 95). The study found that there is an association between the laying of charges and the presence of documented moderate or severe physical injury. Similar to previous studies, the 1999 study found that visible genital trauma was relatively uncommon in sexual assault, and that there was no association between charge-laying and genital findings. This led the researchers to suggest rethinking the time devoted documenting genital microtrauma by colposcopy. The study also found the victim's knowledge of the assailant was a significant independent factor for charge-laying, supplying the critical element of an identifiable suspect for the police.

McGregor et al.'s 2002 study performed a similar retrospective chart review of all 462 cases seen by the British Columbia Women's Sexual Assault Service and reported to

police from January 1993 to December 1997. The 2002 study similarly sought to determine whether medical-legal findings documented by SANEs are associated with the filing of charges and conviction. Of the 462 cases, charges were brought in 151 cases (32.7%), and convictions secured in 51 cases (11%). Genital injury was observed in 193 cases (41.8%), and sperm-semen positive forensic results were seen in 100 cases (38.2%); however, DNA testing was only performed in eight cases, six of which resulted in conviction. The study found that documentation on the police file of receipt of forensic samples collected by the SANE was significantly associated with charges being filed, as was documentation of any degree of injury. The only variable significantly associated with conviction was severe injury. McGregor et al. concluded that the medical-legal findings of the SANE examinations had a significant positive association with both the filing of charges and conviction, and was a valuable practice. The researchers felt strongly about their conclusion, and noted that theirs was one of the first studies of a significant size to use refined measures to track forensic samples collected by SANEs from the exam to the courtroom.

Thus the available evaluations of SANE programs suggest they provide efficiencies in time and money for victims and institutions respectively, and they are effective in collecting evidence, which now has documented effect on securing prosecution.

Victims' Perceptions of Community Post-Rape Services

Studies of rape victims' experiences, perceptions, and satisfaction with post-rape services are becoming more common, as they are relatively easy to administer and they reveal useful information. Various entities that might perform such a study include service-providing organizations themselves, victim advocacy organizations, and conventional

scholars. Examples of studies from all three sources are included here.

Ericksen, Dudley, McIntosh, Ritch, Shumay, and Simpson (2002) recently published a small interpretive study designed to understand women's experiences with the SANE services in one hospital emergency department, and to discover themes from the experiences. While the study lacked statistical power (N = 8), it provided a rich depth of qualitative information. The study found that the women felt positively about their SANE experience, and it identified nine themes important to the victims. These themes included: being respected as a whole person, nursing presence, feeling safe, being touched, being in control, being reassured, confidence in the SANEs' expertise, being given information, and receiving follow-up support after the initial experience. The victims felt that the SANE experience was effective in meeting these needs. Interestingly, the study revealed that the women were specifically dissatisfied with the police response. Only six of the eight victims studied reported to police, but all six had bad experiences with them. Some of the victims said they felt prejudged by the police, others complained the police failed to collect evidence from the scene or follow up on leads, and still others felt the police actions were not well coordinated with the SANE effort. While this small study speaks only to experiences with one SART, and therefore cannot be generalized, it does emphasize themes important to the effectiveness of any multidisciplinary response to sexual assault.

A useful study by a victim advocacy organization was performed by Berliner (2001) for the State of Washington Office of Crime Victims Advocacy. The study consisted of a telephone survey of 1325 adult women, comprising a representative sample of women in Washington State. The purpose of the study was to determine the incidence of sexual assault in the state, as

well as collect information on the characteristics of assault experiences, reporting rates, and access and barriers to services. The study found that 38% of Washington State women had been sexually assaulted in some fashion in their lifetime. Of those victims, 61% had reported the incident to anyone, with only 15% of those reporting to police. Most of the women who did not report to police could not offer a reason for not doing so. Of those who could state a reason, they included: being too young to know (23%), shame about what happened (11%), not being sure it was a crime (9%), fear of the offender (6%), and concern about not being believed (4%). Of those who reported to police, 42% found them completely or very helpful, 32% found them somewhat or slightly helpful, and the remaining 26% found the police not helpful at all. Charges were filed in 50% of reported cases, and 39% of reporting victims were provided a legal advocate. All respondents were also asked their perceptions of their community's response to violence against women. Regarding the police and legal response to sexual assault, 61% considered it excellent, very good, or good; 11% considered it fair or poor; and 27% did not know. When asked about the overall trend in community response to sexual victimization, 49% of all respondents thought it was getting better, 28% thought it was the same, 2% thought it was worse, and 21% did not know. Berliner found reason for optimism in the study, with younger and more recent victims reporting to police and seeking available community resources. Most victims, whether they had reported or not, also said they would encourage other victims to report. There was still room noted for improvement, with just over a quarter of victims finding the police response not helpful at all.

Campbell (1998) provided a different perspective of the community response to rape when she performed a national random study of 168 rape victim advocates. The

advocates were asked to describe the most recent adult sexual assault case they had completed, to assess that victim's experience with the legal, medical, and mental health systems. Campbell found that the experiences clustered into three groups, which she titled: "approaching justice," "one saving grace," and "exercises in futility." The "approaching justice" group consisted of 32% of the cases, and was characterized as women who obtained most of the services they wanted with little difficulty. This group found the legal system responsive to their case, as stranger assaults with a weapon were more common in this group. The medical and mental health systems also responded well to this group, as they fit a "good victim" profile: they were clearly distressed and receptive to help. The "one saving grace" group consisted of 39% of the cases, and was characterized as women who had mixed experiences among the three systems. Most of these cases were not forwarded in the criminal justice system, though the victims wanted them to be. These victims were more likely to have been raped by someone they knew, without the use of a weapon, and while the victim had been drinking. These victims also received less support from the mental health system, but did receive a satisfying response from the medical system, which Campbell saw as their "one saving grace." Finally, the "exercises in futility" group consisted of 29% of the cases, and was characterized by negative experiences with all three systems. These cases fit no clear fact pattern, but they were generally not forwarded in the criminal justice system. They generally did not involve strangers, weapons, injuries, or alcohol use; but usually involved acquaintances and sometimes involved situations between races. These victims fared no better in the mental health and medical systems, as they did not generally exhibit "good victim" behavior. They wanted far more services than they received. These disparities caused Campbell to posit that although the community response

to sexual assault had developed markedly over time, it still appears to best serve those victims who fit a rather constricted mold. Campbell found that the legal system might be the least forgiving of deviations from that mold.

Discussion and Recommendations

Discussion

The purpose of this paper was to review the available literature concerning the police response to sexual assault. As was noted, the crime of sexual assault has proven to be especially challenging for law enforcement. Low rates of reporting have made it difficult to accurately assess its magnitude, and traditional police methods have proven of limited effectiveness to address the crime problem it presents. Ultimately, sexual assault has come to be recognized by society as a social problem, broader than a crime problem, and a broader multidisciplinary approach was devised to address it. This approach currently stands as the cutting edge in the community response to sexual assault, but it has not yet been subjected to comprehensive scholarly scrutiny evaluating its effectiveness.

The writings studied in this review addressed the belief of some scholars that unreceptive attitudes of the police toward rape victims discouraged them from reporting. A seminal study of attitudes toward rape (Feild, 1978) could not substantiate this suspicion, and a later very rigorous study using a survey instrument based on Feild's (LeDoux and Hazelwood, 1985) established that police typically are not insensitive to the plight of rape victims, though they tend to ascribe some responsibility for rape prevention to the victim. This review briefly considered whether training police officers in sexual assault response could shape their attitudes toward sexual assault. While the findings were mixed, the most current and rigorous study on the subject (Lonsway, Welch, & Fitzgerald, 2001)

showed that officers' attitudes were not as subject to change due to training as was their performance in interviewing rape victims, which did improve. Campbell (1995) found that greater experience with rape cases was more influential in shaping officers' attitudes followed by training, in the case of date rape.

Numerous writings studied in this review characterized the police response to sexual assault as being shaped by a legal model (LaFree, 1981; Potts, 1983; Kerstetter, 1990; Frazier & Haney, 1996; Du Mont, 2000). That is, the police appear to be most concerned with establishing the elements of the crime, and accumulating sufficient evidence of the crime to present a credible case for prosecution to the prosecuting attorney. This makes sense in either theory of policing studied. A central focus of the traditional/reactive model of policing was crime control and crime solving, provided by a rapid response to crime and follow-up investigation. Even though this traditional model by itself was found lacking as a complete response to sexual assault, this function is still at the heart of the police mission, even in the modern multidisciplinary approach. In fact, Ericksen et al.'s anecdotal study (2002) suggested that victims are strongly dissatisfied when the police fail to vigorously pursue the follow-up investigation of their case.

The contemporary multidisciplinary approach to sexual assault, embodied in the SART model, arose from a desire to provide a comprehensive response that tends to the needs of the victim, collects evidence that the police cannot obtain themselves, and provides vigorous follow-up. The primary function and role of the police is not markedly different between the traditional and contemporary models of sexual assault response. The police provide a thorough criminal investigation and liaison with the rest of the criminal justice system as the case works through the system. The multidisciplinary approach brings other professionals into the response to do for the victim that

which the police cannot do, or are simply not very good at. This is also why the SART concept must be considered an enhanced reactive response.

The heart of the community-oriented/proactive theory of policing (COP) is a philosophy of solving problems in cooperative police-community partnerships before the problems turn into crime. The SART model, while broader than the traditional response to sexual assault, is neither broad enough nor proactive, and thus does not fit the COP philosophy. CALCASA's comprehensive *Vision to End Sexual Assault* (2001) better fits the community-oriented/proactive philosophy. CALCASA's plan involves stakeholders from the community and all appropriate professions. It addresses, as a community, both the victimization currently occurring, and it pursues a plan to prevent future victimization. Such an effort requires broad cooperation throughout the community to fundamentally restructure the way sexual assault is seen and addressed, and it takes time. The scope of effort and time horizon of action involved are beyond the capabilities of police alone to achieve, though they have a key role to play. This is the reason the community-oriented policing philosophy was devised, to create a mechanism for long-term community change to improve public safety and lower the citizen fear of crime. It will take such an effort to address the greater social problem of sexual assault.

Recommendations for Further Study

As was noted previously, there is currently no study available of the effectiveness of the response to sexual assault before and after the implementation of a SART program currently available. Such a study would be a valuable contribution to the literature, and it is possible to conduct one at the local level. Individual SART programs have conducted credible studies of their work without the benefit of an associated university

partner; others have achieved even more within such a partnership. The recent spatial-temporal study of sexual assault in Anchorage conducted jointly by the Anchorage Police Department, University of Alaska Anchorage Justice Center, and Anchorage Sexual Assault Response Team, under a U.S. Bureau of Justice Statistics grant, clearly shows the local criminal justice community in Anchorage has the capacity and will to conduct credible research. This author proposes that funding be sought to conduct a comparative effectiveness study of the response to sexual assault in Anchorage before and after the activation of the Anchorage SART in late 1996. Both the local and broader academic and practitioner communities would greatly benefit from such an addition to the literature on the subject.

Conclusion

The core of the police response to sexual assault has changed little over time; it is to conduct thorough criminal investigations that will find and prosecute perpetrators of sexual assault. All parties agree that the police role should be carried out in a manner sensitive to the victims of the crime, which is particularly devastating in nature. The needs of victims and for prosecution have been better served by the development of a multidisciplinary response to sexual assault. The partnership members provide holistic care for the victim and a seamless investigation and prosecution of suspects. The model also provides better training for the police, affording them a balanced perspective and preparing them for a thorough yet sensitive response. The model, however, cannot eliminate the crime of sexual assault. Such a lofty goal can only be approached by a broader community effort exerted over time that will proactively shape the community's thinking and actions relative to human relations and sexuality.

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Appendix A

Alaska Statutes

Sec. 11.41.410. Sexual assault in the first degree.

(a) An offender commits the crime of sexual assault in the first degree if
(1) the offender engages in sexual penetration with another person without consent of that person;
(2) the offender attempts to engage in sexual penetration with another person without consent of that person and causes serious physical injury to that person;
(3) the offender engages in sexual penetration with another person
(A) who the offender knows is mentally incapable; and
(B) who is in the offender's care

(i) by authority of law; or
(ii) in a facility or program that is required by law to be licensed by the state; or
(4) the offender engages in sexual penetration with a person who the offender knows is unaware that a sexual act is being committed and
(A) the offender is a health care worker; and
(B) the offense takes place during the course of professional treatment of the victim.
(b) Sexual assault in the first degree is an unclassified felony and is punishable as provided in AS 12.55.

Sec. 11.41.420. Sexual assault in the second degree.

(a) An offender commits the crime of sexual assault in the second degree if
(1) the offender engages in sexual contact with another person without consent of that person;
(2) the offender engages in sexual contact with a person
(A) who the offender knows is mentally incapable; and
(B) who is in the offender's care
(i) by authority of law; or
(ii) in a facility or program that is required by law to be licensed by the state;
(3) the offender engages in sexual penetration with a person who the offender knows is
(A) mentally incapable;
(B) incapacitated; or
(C) unaware that a sexual act is being committed; or
(4) the offender engages in sexual contact with a person who the offender knows is unaware that a sexual act is being committed and
(A) the offender is a health care worker; and
(B) the offense takes place during the course of professional

treatment of the victim.
(b) Sexual assault in the second degree is a class B felony.

Sec. 11.41.425. Sexual assault in the third degree.

(a) An offender commits the crime of sexual assault in the third degree if the offender
(1) engages in sexual contact with a person who the offender knows is
(A) mentally incapable;
(B) incapacitated; or
(C) unaware that a sexual act is being committed;
(2) while employed in a state correctional facility or other placement designated by the commissioner of corrections for the custody and care of prisoners, engages in sexual penetration with a person who the offender knows is committed to the custody of the Department of Corrections to serve a term of imprisonment or period of temporary commitment; or
(3) engages in sexual penetration with a person 18 or 19 years of age who the offender knows is committed to the custody of the Department of Health and Social Services under AS 47.10 or AS 47.12 and the offender is the legal guardian of the person.
(b) Sexual assault in the third degree is a class C felony.

Sec. 11.41.427. Sexual assault in the fourth degree.

(a) An offender commits the crime of sexual assault in the fourth degree if
(1) while employed in a state correctional facility or other placement designated by the commissioner of corrections for the custody and care of prisoners, the offender engages in sexual contact with a person who the offender knows is committed to the custody of the Department of Corrections to serve a term of imprisonment or period of temporary

commitment; or
(2) the offender engages in sexual contact with a person 18 or 19 years of age who the offender knows is committed to the custody of the Department of Health and Social Services under AS 47.10 or AS 47.12 and the offender is the legal guardian of the person.
(b) Sexual assault in the fourth degree is a class A misdemeanor.

Source: State of Alaska. (2000). *Alaska criminal and traffic law manual on cd-rom*. [CD-ROM]. Charlottesville, VA: LEXIS Law Publishing.

Primate Behavior: More Human Than Human?

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English 111 – Methods of Written Communication
Ms. Anna Smith, Instructor

One of the eternal questions of mankind has been that of what it means to be human. Where did we come from? Where are we going? What makes us tick? Throughout history, philosophers, scientists, and individual persons have all sought answers to these questions in the hope that such insights will help make us better people. There is no doubt that we, as a species, are a very diverse and complicated group, capable of the noblest and most horrible acts imaginable. But in the last few decades, research into the individual and social behaviors of primates has produced some surprising results. Now it appears that many aspects of our "humanity" may not be what separates us from the animals after all, but rather what we have retained from a time millions of years ago when our family tree was much smaller. Many behaviors that we characterize as human are probably actually derived from primate behaviors.

Perhaps one of the best reasons to take a close look at primate behaviors has come about fairly recently with DNA testing. The two primate species to which we are most closely related, chimpanzees and the lesser-known bonobos, share more than ninety-eight percent of our DNA (de Waal, 1995; Pusey, 2001), which is more than zebras and horses have in common.

These two species are actually closer to us than they are to the other apes, such as gorillas and orangutans (de Waal, 2001b). The human line of ancestry didn't diverge from the line of the chimpanzee and bonobo until about eight million years ago, and those two species didn't become separate until later (de Waal, 1995). Interestingly, bonobos, which were only classified as a species in 1933 (Linden, 1992b), bear a strong resemblance to early hominids like australopithecines, especially while standing or walking upright (de Waal, 1995). These biological similarities suggest that modern primates may hold more clues to our origins and characteristics than previously thought.

Without question, human beings are a multi-faceted bunch. Social structures and practices among separate groups of humans (and even within our complex modern societies) have historically been supremely varied. However, this phenomenon of diversity can be found in primates as well. As writer Steve Sailer (1999) put it in the magazine *National Review*, "anybody can turn to his favorite primate in support of his favorite lifestyle" (p. 34). Gibbons live in monogamous, egalitarian, affectionate pairs, while gorillas form harems dominated by a single male (Sailer, 1999). Loners can identify with orangutans, one of the few species of non-social primates, who live alone and only occasionally get together to mate (Sapolsky, 1993). Feminists can take heart from bonobos – primatologist Frans de Waal reported in *Scientific American* in 1995 that their society is "not only female-centered but also appears to be female-dominated" (p. 87). For those who prefer a peaceful, free-love approach, bonobos are again the answer. Bonobos substitute sex for aggression in their interactions, copulating frequently and in almost every partner combination (de Waal, 1995).

Bonobo sexual behavior actually has quite a bit in common with that of humans. For instance, face-to-face copulation is common among bonobos, although until recently that

practice had been considered uniquely human (de Waal, 1995). Also, bonobos' rate of reproduction is about the same as that of chimpanzees even though their sexual interactions occur more frequently. These findings led de Waal (1995) to conclude that "bonobos share at least one very important characteristic with our own species, namely, a partial separation between sex and reproduction" (p. 82). Even more striking is female bonobos' use of sex as a bargaining chip with males, often in exchange for a share of his food stash (de Waal, 1995). These discoveries are surprising indeed, demonstrating attitudes about sex that previously were believed to be held only by humans.

Another trait we share with other members of our primate family is that of leaving home. Primatologist Robert Sapolsky (1993), in *Discover*, relates that "essentially all social primates have evolved mechanisms for adolescent immigration from one group to another" (p. 60). Not all adolescents leave their natal groups, just all the adolescents of one gender. Whether it is the males or the females that move on varies by species (Sapolsky, 1993). This maturational event, central to humans and most other social primates, is driven by the simple fact that if we all stayed within the same small community we were born into we would eventually have severe problems with inbreeding (Sapolsky, 1993). But that doesn't make the decision to leave home any easier. Adolescents new to a group are generally ignored or treated aggressively by members of their new group (Sapolsky, 1993). Descriptions of these "transfer" primates' experiences read like an account of being the new kid at school – no one will give you the time of day, and at mealtime some bully will inevitably harass you and take your lunch money. But, as any parent of a teenager can attest, primate adolescents have an innate urge to leave the nest. In the words of Sapolsky (1993), "an adolescent female chimp cranes to catch a glimpse of the chimps from the next valley. New animals, a

whole bunch of 'em! To hell with logic and sensible behavior, to hell with tradition and respecting your elders, to hell with this drab little town, and to hell with that knot of fear in your stomach. Curiosity, excitement, adventure – the hunger for novelty is something fundamentally daft, rash, and enriching that we share with our whole taxonomic order" (p. 64).

We primates share yet another interesting characteristic – when we act aggressively towards someone within our social circle, we try to reconcile with that individual afterwards. Primates actively establish and maintain histories of interaction, or social relationships (de Waal, 2000), very much like what we refer to as "networking." When hostilities occur between primates within a group, the individuals involved will quickly resolve their differences through friendly interactions. These behaviors vary by species, but include holding hands, embracing, mouth-to-mouth kissing, or even make-up sex (de Waal, 2000). Just as in humans, there is evidence that aggression in close relationships can be quite common without endangering them. For instance, macaque mothers, daughters, and sisters display high levels of grooming and support but also fight with each other more than with unrelated females, and male muriquis even share group hugs after aggression (de Waal, 2000). Other forms of conflict resolution among primates include high-ranking individuals breaking up fights or systematically protecting the weak against the strong, third-party reconciliations where a relative will approach the opponent on another's behalf, and even third-party mediation. This complex pattern has so far only been observed in chimpanzees, in which, after a fight between male rivals who are hesitant to make up, a female may groom one and then the other until she has brought the two together (de Waal, 2000). Research on conflict resolution among human children has stressed the same themes as the primate research, such as the increased tendency to reconcile

between friends and the acquiring of peacemaking skills through interaction between peers and siblings (de Waal, 2000).

Primates also possess communication skills formerly thought to belong only to humans. Pointing, for example, is a form of non-verbal communication which was believed to be inextricably linked to language (de Waal, 2001a). However, there have been numerous instances of primate pointing. Several species point with their whole bodies or by jerking their heads or eyes in the direction of the indicated object or individual (de Waal, 2001a). Although humans use this technique as well, some critics will only consider manual pointing – and not among captive primates who may have learned it from humans. Even so, there are reports of manual pointing in the wild. In all cases, pointing is accompanied by the "pointer" looking back at the individual or group whose attention they are trying to direct, proving that this is an intentional act of conveying information that the "pointer" has and knows that others do not (de Waal, 2001a).

Most people have heard of apes being taught sign language or learning a vocabulary of symbols to communicate with humans (Linden, 1992a). These animals communicate successfully with their trainers, and some of the apes trained in American Sign Language have actually been videotaped signing to themselves while looking at pictures in magazines, without acting for the benefit of a human audience (de Waal, 2001a). One young bonobo named Kanzi was found to have the grammatical skills of a young child. This is perhaps more impressive than it sounds considering that any capacity for language is a trait thought to have only developed with early man, along with organized hunting, tool-making, and teaching, all of which have been observed in chimpanzees (Linden, 1992a).

Primates display many specific behaviors that are part of our human repertoire. Apes beg by stretching out an

open palm and will pout their lips and make whimpering sounds if they are turned down (de Waal, 1995). Bowing and aggressive staring are other ape behaviors that we retain (Linden, 1992a). Various apes and monkeys play "blindman's bluff," covering their eyes and stumbling around, bumping into others (de Waal, 1995). Apes smile and laugh (Goodall, 1979) and like to make funny faces (de Waal, 1995). Scientists have evidence that both chimps and orangutans know how to use plants for medicine (Linden, 1992a), and chimpanzees use more tools for more purposes than any creatures except humans (Goodall, 1979). They have even been observed to use twigs as sandals to protect their feet from thorns (Miller, 1995).

Chimpanzees are particularly interesting, because, just like humans, even though they are frequently tender and compassionate, they can be "kind or cruel, caring or cold, thoughtful or stupid" (Miller, 1995, p. 106). Jane Goodall once recalled that when she began her research, she "thought the chimps were nicer than we are. But time has revealed that they are not. They can be just as awful." (as cited in Miller, 1995). She had been studying chimpanzees at Gombe National Park in Tanzania for over ten years when patrols of males from one community began attacking chimps from another community in an all-too-human example of primitive warfare. The warriors stepped from stone to stone to avoid making noise, hair bristling with fear and excitement, moving through the forest in single file (Miller, 1995). In the Army, this is known as a "Ranger file" and is still the preferred tactical formation for a small group moving through dense vegetation.

Another very human-like aspect of chimpanzee behavior is their politics. They form alliances, and therefore high-ranking individuals are not necessarily the strongest, but the ones that can mobilize the most support (de Waal, 2000). Male chimps vying for support play with infants (Linden,

1992a), shake hands, hug, and slap each other on the back (Miller, 1995). If that doesn't paint the picture of the stereotypical politician, it's hard to say what does.

All in all, there is a great deal of evidence to support the notion that many "human" characteristics are more correctly primate characteristics. From surly teenagers, to making up after a fight, to politicians holding babies, we have much in common with the rest of our primate family. Unquestionably, humans are the planet's dominant species, but maybe we as a species are a little less unique than we think.

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2003
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Art 302 – Ceramics
Mr. Robert Banker, Assistant Professor

Kamryn James
O mio babbino caro (Gianni Schicchi) / Villa (The Merry Widow)
Music 362 – Private Lessons/Voice
Dr. Mari Hahn, Associate Professor

Amanda Johnson
Slavonic Dance, Op. 46 #2
Music 302 1 – Chamber Ensemble
Dr. Timothy Smith, Professor

Chandria Kern
What is Reality? Metafiction in Memento and Fight Club
English 383 – Film Interpretation
Dr. Patricia Linton, Professor

Katherine Kosterman
Soave sia al vento (Cosi fan tutte)
Music 468 – Voice Master Class
Dr. Mari Hahn, Associate Professor

Dawn Lawlor
Feasibility Study Implementation of a Seawolf Safety Patrol
English 212 – Technical Writing
Dr. Jackie Cason, Instructor

Michelle LeBlanc
The American Dream Turned into a Nightmare
English 351 – Poetry
Dr. Suzanne Forster, Associate Professor

Heidi Little
Feasibility Study Implementation of a Seawolf Safety Patrol
English 212 – Technical Writing
Dr. Jackie Cason, Instructor

Peggy McBride-Spindle
Soave sia al vento (Cosi fan tutte)
Music 468 – Voice Master Class
Dr. Mari Hahn, Associate Professor

Sharon Mesley
The Elusive Search for Self in Metaphysical Detection
English 343 – Contemporary Literature
Dr. Patricia Linton, Professor

Ed Moran
Soave sia al vento (Cosi fan tutte)
Music 468 – Voice Master Class
Dr. Mari Hahn, Associate Professor

Robin Mullican
Beowulf
English 121 – Introduction to Literature
Mr. Mike Sirofchuck, Instructor

Jenna Ordway
Concerto #3 in G Minor
Music 302– Chamber Ensemble
Dr. Timothy Smith, Professor

Rhonda Overway
Paper & String: Gwendolyn Brooks and Rita Dove Package the Black Experience
English 351 – Poetry
Dr. Suzanne Forster, Associate Professor

Dale Pittman
Feasibility Study Implementation of a Seawolf Safety Patrol
English 212 – Technical Writing
Dr. Jackie Cason, Instructor

Christopher Richter
Breakthroughs in Nanotechnology for Medical Uses
Computer Information Systems 376 –
Management Information Systems
Ms. Hoanca Bogden, Assistant Professor

Mahatab Samali-Baumgartner
Helen Johnson: The Endocrine Case Study
Nursing 309- Pharmacology in Nursing
Dr. Mary Logan, Assistant Professor
& Dr. Tina DeLapp, Professor

Kim Shimroma
Les sons et les parfums tournet dans l'air du soir
Music 467 – Piano Master Class
Dr. Timothy Smith, Professor

April Spain
La vie en rose
Music 362 – Private Lessons/Voice
Dr. Mari Hahn, Associate Professor

Shelley Stewart
Hester, Esther & the Symbolism of Handkerchiefs
English 340 – The Victorian Period
Dr. Genie Babb, Associate Professor

Bridget Sullivan
I Never Saw a Moor
Music 262 – Private Lessons/Voice
Dr. Mari Hahn, Associate Professor

Emily Triplett
Art & Fiction: The Aesthetic of Amelie
English 383 – Film Interpretation
Dr. Patricia Linton, Professor

Freya Wardlaw-Bailey
Sonata in B-Flat Major, DV 960; I. Molto Moderato
Music 462 – Private Lessons/Piano
Ms. Svetlana Velitchko, Instructor

Ian Wheeles
Evaluation of the Political Process of Germany, China, and Russia
Political Science 311 – Comparative Politics
Dr. Diddy Hitchins, Professor

Lem Wheeles
Performance of Political Process Functions in Mexico, Japan, & France
Political Science 311 – Comparative Politics
Dr. Diddy Hitchins, Professor